DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 101 548	FL 005 906
TITLE	New York City Foreign Language Program for Secondary Schools: Chinese Levels 1. and 2.
INSTITUTION	New York City Board of Education, Brooklyn, N.Y. Bureau of Curriculum Development.
PUB DATE	73
NOTE	174p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Board of Education of the City of New York, Publication Sales Office, 110 Livingston Street, Brooklyn, New York 11201 ($5.00, checks payable to Auditor, Board of Education)
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.76 HC Not Available from EDRS. PLUS POSTAGE
DESCRIPTORS	Advanced Placement Programs; Audiolingual Skills; *Audiovisual Aids; *Chinese; Chinese Culture; Curriculum Design; *Curriculum Guides; Evaluation Methods; Homework; *Language Instruction; Language Laboratories; Language Skills; Language Tests; Pattern Drills (Language); Programed Instruction; Reading Instruction; Team Teaching; Textbooks; Writing Skills

ABSTRACT

This curriculum bulletin is intended to serve as a guide to teachers and supervisors in teaching the fundamental Chinese language skills, in using audiolingual techniques, and in developing an understanding of China, its people and its civilization. Information and guidelines are presented for the following areas: (1) aims, content, and scope of levels 1 and 2; (2) developing the four basic language skills; (3) writing and using pattern drills; (4) textbooks and textbook adaptation; (5) use of the tape recorder; (6) homework; (7) the teaching of culture; (8) audiovisual resources; (9) the language laboratory; (10) testing and evaluation; (11) the advanced placement program; (12) team teaching; and (13) programmed instruction. An extensive bibliography and a list of audiovisual materials for use in Chinese classes are also provided. (Author/PMP)

ED101548

CURRICULUM BULLETIN • 1972-73 SERIES • NO. 7

NEW YORK CITY FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAM
FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

國語

Chinese

Levels 1 and 2

教学法

FL 005 906

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FOREWORD

The study of China, its language and its people, has always been of singular importance to Americans, in view of its unique history and its vast size and population. With the admission of the Peoples Republic of China to the United Nations and its changing relationship with the United States, interest in the Chinese language and civilization will undoubtedly grow. It can be expected that mainland China will be more accessible than heretofore and that communication between China and the United States will expand. It is inevitable, therefore, that a greater number of students will be attracted to the study of the Chinese language and culture.

This bulletin, New York City Foreign Language Program for Secondary Schools: Chinese, Levels I and II, is intended to serve as a guide to teachers and supervisors in teaching the fundamental Chinese language skills, in using audio-lingual techniques, and in developing an understanding of China, its people, and its civilization.

In presenting this bulletin, we express deep appreciation to the staff and to members of the academic community who contributed so generously to this work.

SEELIG LESTER
Deputy Superintendent of Schools

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This bulletin was developed under the overall direction of Seelig Lester, Deputy Superintendent of Schools, as a cooperative venture involving the Bureau of Curriculum Development, David A. Abramson, Acting Director, Leonard Simon, Acting Assistant Director; and the Bureau of Foreign Languages, Leo Benardo, Director, David Weiss, Assistant Director.

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At the Bureau of Curriculum Development, Lilliam M. Gillers coordinated the project and edited the manuscript; Edna Bernstein assisted in the preparation of the bibliography; Edythe Kahn and Elena Lucchini collaborated in the editing and were responsible for printing production.

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INTRODUCTION

Foreign languages in the public schools of the United States have in the past been studied primarily for their cultural and literary values. Given a meager allotment of time, the linguistic objectives of foreign language study were often limited to the development of reading skill. In many instances, an undue amount of instruction time was devoted to translation and to grammatical analysis in English. As has been increasingly evident, the outcomes of such instruction have proved to be inadequate to the foreign language needs of our citizens and of our government in the present-day world.

The supersonic jet and swifter forms of world-wide communications have contracted the globe, and the need to communicate with our neighbors abroad has become all the more imperative. Our international relations are constantly expanding as we endeavor to build and maintain alliances for securing the peace, to provide technicians and material assistance to underdeveloped countries, to engage in international cooperation in science, technology and business, and to promote large-scale cultural exchanges of students, teachers, artists, musicians, and leaders in many fields. The importance of acquiring a working knowledge of foreign languages is constantly increasing as our far-flung activities and our destiny grow more and more intertwined with those of other peoples.

The fact that the study of foreign languages has become vital to the national interest has been dramatized through the National Defense Education Act (1958) and the creation of the Peace Corps (1961). The resulting challenge to the schools was taken up in the revised New York State foreign language syllabi (1960 et seq.) by emphasizing foreign language as a means of oral communication and by recommending longer sequences of foreign language study. In consonance with the New York State syllabi, the New York City Foreign Language Program for Secondary Schools stresses an audio-lingual approach and provides four to six year sequences of foreign language study.

In addition, this curriculum bulletin incorporates recent modifications of the predominantly linguistic orientation which prevailed during the initial stages of the new trend in foreign language teaching. These modifications are chiefly reflected in motivational activities, in a reaffirmation of the importance of meaning as opposed to mechanical repetition, and in the greater flexibility accorded to pre-reading instruction, thus affording the possibility of a somewhat earlier exposure to the graphic symbol than had formerly been advocated. An attempt has thus been made to balance the earlier subject-centered emphasis of applied linguistics by favoring a learner-centered approach.

PURPOSES AND USES OF THIS BULLETIN

This publication represents the culminating stage of the Chinese curriculum project developed as part of the New York City Foreign Language Revision Program for Secondary Schools.

In the course of the revision program, a total of 23 different experimental bulletins appeared from 1962 through 1965 in the form of separate fascicles for five levels of instruction in French and Spanish, and four levels in German, Hebrew, Italian, Latin, and Russian. These bulletins were used experimentally in all the junior and senior high schools in New York City. They were then evaluated by teachers, chairmen, coordinators, and other supervisory personnel, both individually and in committee. On the basis of this evaluation, a number of revisions and editorial rearrangements were made. Finally, all the fascicles dealing with a particular language were combined into a single bulletin for that language.

The completion of this bulletin for Chinese, Levels I - II, fulfills the aim stated in 1962 in the first of the experimental bulletins, namely, "to provide our foreign language teachers with a syllabus which is in consonance with the New York State syllabus, with the new organization affecting foreign languages in the junior high schools, and with the newer audio-lingual techniques."

This bulletin is intended to serve as a guide to teachers of Chinese in:

1. following the scope and sequence of course content
2. teaching the fundamental language skills
3. teaching the culture and civilization of China
4. using audio-lingual techniques
5. preparing and using dialogues and pattern drills
6. carrying on a program of motivational activities and projects
7. using audio-visual aids and the tape recorder
8. using the language laboratory
9. employing effective criteria for textbook selection
10. adapting textbooks to audio-lingual teaching
11. planning homework assignments
12. planning and scheduling supplementary reading and reports
13. improving inter-divisional articulation
14. constructing tests and comprehensive examinations

Foreign language chairmen, supervisors, and coordinators will be guided by this bulletin in:

1. preparing departmental courses of study
2. orienting teachers to the principles and practices of foreign language teaching
3. preparing model lesson plans and teaching materials for department use
4. evaluating textbooks and audio-visual aids
5. planning department programs for the use of audio-visual aids

6. planning for the effective use of the language laboratory
7. promoting inter-divisional articulation
8. setting up a department program of motivational and enrichment activities
9. organizing a department-wide supplementary reading program
10. formulating directives to teachers for pupil orientation to Regents and other comprehensive examinations
11. planning inter-divisional and departmental testing programs
12. evaluating the general program of foreign language instruction

This bulletin is a fairly comprehensive source book of language learning theory and of activities, procedures, techniques, and devices employed in foreign language teaching and learning. Considering the heterogeneity of the New York City school population, the vast range of interests and abilities, and consequent variations in rate of progress, there is an urgent need for individualization of instruction to achieve maximum learning for each group. It follows then that local adaptations of this bulletin are essential, whether divisional, departmental, or inter-class. It is not expected that teachers will attempt to adopt all the suggestions offered, but rather that they will make selective use of all the activities described herein, depending on the individual needs, interests, abilities, and previous achievement of the class.

By couching its principles and delineation of topics in the form of suggestions, this bulletin gives considerable leeway to the individual resourcefulness, creativity, and initiative of teachers. This is particularly so in such matters as devising means to sustain pupil interest, making and collecting illustrative materials, exploiting the full potential of the tape recorder, and creating situations for pupils to use the foreign language both in and out of class.

LEVELS AND GRADES

To clarify references to grades and sequences, the term level is used rather than grade or year. Since this curriculum bulletin is designed to be uniform for both junior and senior high schools, Levels I and II, which may be taught in either division, are treated together.

The notion of levels of foreign language instruction is based on a more or less empirical system of (a) subject matter organization and (b) relative rates of acquisition of subject matter plus skills at different stages of education. Thus, the fundamental linguistic subject matter of a foreign language may be organized into three parts: Elementary (Levels I and II), Intermediate (Levels III and IV), and Advanced (Level V, Advanced Placement). As for the rate of acquisition, it is usually said to be the amount of foreign language subject matter plus skills that can be acquired by a normal pupil in 1 year of senior high school (at 5 periods per week) and 2 (or 3) years of junior high school (at a smaller number of periods per week). This ratio is, of course, approximate and may vary, depending on the previous knowledge, motivation, ability, and maturity of the pupils as well as on the school organization and on the number of periods allotted to foreign language study.

By using the system of levels, confusion is eliminated regarding a pupil's year or grade in school and his stage of advancement in foreign language study (i.e., his level). Furthermore, in the event of changes in school organization, only minor rearrangements of subject matter need be made. Organization by levels also makes possible many schemes of level-grade relationships as between junior and senior high schools. In addition, variations can easily be made to provide acceleration for pupils who are highly proficient in foreign languages.

AIMS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

General Aims

The general aim of instruction in foreign languages is to develop in pupils the skills needed for effective communication in the foreign language.

A concomitant aim is to develop in pupils an understanding of the foreign people, of their country, and of their culture.

Specific Aims

Linguistic Aims

1. To understand the foreign language when spoken by a native at normal tempo and on a topic within the pupil's experience.
2. To speak the foreign language on topics within the pupil's experience with sufficient clarity to be understood by a native.
3. To read with direct comprehension material within the pupil's experience.
4. To write in the foreign language on topics within the pupil's experience.

Cultural Aims

1. To develop an enlightened understanding of the foreign people through a study of their contemporary life, their patterns of behavior, and their national customs and observances.
2. To acquire specific knowledge regarding the geography, history, economic life, and educational and political institutions of the foreign people.
3. To acquire attitudes conducive to intercultural harmony through a study of the contributions of the foreign people to the development of the United States and of world civilization.
4. To develop cultural and esthetic appreciationsthrough a study of the foreign country's art, music, literature, science, and contemporary art-forms, such as drama, film, dance, and design.
5. To promote growth in the language arts through the development of language consciousness.

AIMS FOR LEVEL I

Expected outcomes of the audio-lingual approach integrated with reading and writing activities:

1. Facility in speaking Chinese in everyday situations within the content scope of Level I.

2. The ability to understand the Chinese language when spoken at normal speed on subjects within the content scope of Level I.

3. The ability to read in Chinese, with direct comprehension, what has been mastered audio-lingually.

4. The ability to copy in writing and to write from dictation Chinese that has been heard, spoken and read.

5. The acquisition of an introductory knowledge regarding the life and customs of the Chinese people.

AIMS FOR LEVEL II

Expected outcomes of an audio-lingual approach integrated with reading and writing activities:

1. The ability to speak Chinese with reasonable fluency on topics within the content scope of Levels I and II. This ability is demonstrated by immediate and appropriate responses in Chinese to questions, cues and other stimuli, by the ability to ask appropriate questions, and to make meaningful statements in Chinese.

2. The ability to comprehend the Chinese language directly when spoken by a native on topics within the scope of Levels I and II. Such comprehension is demonstrated by immediate and appropriate actions, or by appropriate verbal or written responses in Chinese.

3. The ability to read with direct comprehension both known and new material on topics within the scope of Levels I and II. This ability is demonstrated by correct phrasing, stress and intonation in oral reading and, in silent reading, by appropriate verbal or written responses in Chinese, to content questions or other comprehension checks.

4. The ability to write in Chinese what has been heard, spoken and read, within the scope of Levels I and II. This ability is demonstrated in writing memorized dialogues, dictations, cued responses, answers to questions, and directed compositions.

5. The acquisition of specific knowledge regarding the life, customs and observances of the Chinese people, the geography and climate of their country and Chinese cultural islands in the United States.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES, LEVELS I AND II

1. Chinese instruction should be conducted in accordance with psychological principles of learning. Subject matter should be presented in easily assimilable units. Each unit should be suitably motivated. Overlearning and reinforcement should be employed to promote retention of subject matter and mastery of skills.

2. The audio-lingual approach emphasizes language as a means of oral communication, hence there should be maximum use of Chinese at all times by the teacher and pupils. The use of English in the Chinese classroom should be kept to a minimum. Classroom routine should be conducted in Chinese. English should be used only when necessary; i.e. (a) to give the meaning of highly contrastive structures; (b) to provide cues for recall drill of such structures; (c) to develop and formulate generalizations or rules of grammar; and (d) to give the meaning of words and phrases that cannot be readily defined or explained in Chinese.

3. The sequence of learning Chinese should be: listening, speaking, reading, writing.

4. Pupils should learn the basic sound system of the Chinese language in functionalexpressions before learning to read and write it. This should occur during a "pre-reading phase" of audio-lingual instruction.

5. It is recommended that approximately the first 20 class sessions of Level I be devoted to the pre-reading phase of Chinese instruction. Since the optimum duration of the pre-reading phase cannot be uniformly established for all classes and languages, local decisions by experienced teachers and supervisors will be necessary. Such decisions will take into account the following: (a) maturity of the pupil, and (b) the particular language being studied. With regard to pupil maturity, the pre-reading phase would tend to be longer in the lower grades and shorter in the higher grades. With regard to a particular language, the pre-reading phase would tend to be longer for languages with Roman alphabets and non-phonetic spelling (French), and shorter for languages with Roman alphabets and phonetic spelling (German, Italian, Spanish). It would also tend to be shorter for languages with non-Roman alphabets (Hebrew, Russian, Chinese).

6. Grammar should be learned as structural patterns of language, with a maximum of drill to automatize responses and a minimum of theoretical analysis. It is more important for the pupil to learn Chinese than to learn how to discuss it in English. However, meaning should never be ignored in favor of mechanical drill and rote memorization. Both analysis and analogy should be employed in the learning process.

7. Among the goals of instruction is the development of the ability of direct auditory and reading comprehension. This means that translation should be avoided as a teaching procedure.

8. The necessity for intensive ear training and for habit formation in oral expression makes the use of the language laboratory and of classroom electronic equipment an essential part of audio-lingual teaching and learning.

9. Visual aids, such as slides, filmstrips, pictures, charts, models, costumed dolls, etc., should be employed to teach and drill vocabulary, and to promote oral production in the Chinese language.

10. The cultural aspect of the study of Chinese should be integrated with the linguistic aspect. Particularly in the early phases, when class time is needed for audio-lingual drill, emphasis should be on the language itself as a cultural manifestation. However, in order to insure common learnings of basic cultural data and insights, specific cultural topics are prescribed.

DEVELOPING THE LANGUAGE SKILLS, LEVELS I AND II

The methods to be used by the teacher in audio-lingual instruction are determined by the aims and guiding principles previously set forth. Similarly, all classroom activities must be planned and carried out in such a way as to promote these aims and principles. Although the teaching suggestions below are listed separately under the four skills which constitute language competence, this is only a procedural convenience and is by no means intended to suggest that these skills are separate entities. On the contrary, language learning is an organic process in which each skill is dependent upon and reinforces the other. Auditory comprehension, for example, involves listening, understanding and, usually, responding by word or deed; hence, the linked concept, "audio-lingual" skill. Whether the components of this skill are taught and learned simultaneously or sequentially, they are always interactive and interdependent.

Ear Training

In learning Chinese, the listening experience precedes understanding and speaking. When the speech sounds that strike the pupil's ears are directly linked in his mind with meaning, the pupil may be said to comprehend audially what is being spoken. It is the teacher's function to establish this direct linkage of sound and meaning by constant and repeated exposure of the pupil to the sound of Chinese in the form of functionally used basic speech patterns.

The voice which the beginning pupil will hear is most often that of the teacher. Listening to the teacher pronounce phrases and speak or read aloud in Chinese, with clarity, distinct enunciation, appropriate facial expressions, and with gestures, should induce the pupil to concentrate on sounds, intonation, stress, and meaning. The teacher should gradually increase the listening experiences of his pupils by the use of discs or tapes in the classroom or in the language laboratory, where the pupils can be isolated from listening to their classmates' mistakes. Chinese films, and radio and television programs also provide valuable ear training when purposefully integrated with class work.

To develop auditory comprehension, the pupil must be trained to listen attentively and with discrimination. His ability to listen attentively depends largely on motivation; his ability to listen with discrimination depends on knowing what to listen for, and intensive practice in guided listening. Curiosity and the novelty of learning a foreign language may be the initial motivation for listening, but these may soon wane unless a stronger motivation is established. Such motivation depends on the intrinsic interest of what the pupil is listening to; its pertinence to his experience; his conscious awareness of the purpose of the listening; precise instructions as to what to listen for; and gratification resulting from the success of the listening, i.e., comprehension.

In preparing materials and planning activities designed to provide ear training, the teacher should be guided by the following principles:

1. The spoken subject matter should have intrinsic interest and should be related to present or potential student experience.

2. Listening should be followed by oral reproduction or responses so that the student comes to realize as a matter of direct personal experience that accurate oral reproduction depends in the first instance on accurate listening and understanding.

3. To insure that students know what to listen for, the teacher should provide suitable motivation, based on content, before the first listening. After the first listening, there should be an analysis only of those sounds and structures which have caused comprehension difficulties. Repeated listening thereafter will fortify the sound-meaning linkage necessary for proper ear training.

4. A comprehension check should follow the listening experience. To be valid in audio-lingual instruction, the comprehension check should

operate exclusively in Chinese. Translation into English will defeat the aim of achieving direct comprehension.

Speaking

As already indicated, the ability to speak Chinese is developed concurrently with the ability to listen with auditory discrimination and comprehension. A pupil must be able to hear and understand before he can be trained to imitate what has been spoken. Effective oral communication in a given language depends on the ability to produce rapidly the characteristic sounds and intonation of that language; i.e., the ability to pronounce correctly and without undue hesitation the normal structural patterns of the language. Acquiring this ability is essentially a matter of habit formation, which implies intensive drill.

From a practical point of view, the development of good pronunciation by the pupil depends on the good pronunciation of the teacher, and on the teacher's constant insistence on accurate repetition. Until basic habits of speech production have been established through guided practice with the teacher, it is advisable not to use recorded native speech for mimicry drill. Recorded speech can never adequately replace the live example of the teacher because it offers no visual clues to articulation and does not react to pupil errors. The key, therefore, to accurate pronunciation and intonation is teacher-guided imitation and repetition. Beginning with repetition of whole units of oral expression, oral skill is gradually expanded through repetitive drill designed to give the pupil habitual control of basic forms and structures, and the ability to vary and transform them automatically, as required.

Speech can be analyzed into articulation, stress, intonation, etc., but to the beginning pupil, after being trained to listen and understand, speech appears as a continuum of meaningful sounds, and it should be learned as such. Analysis should be confined to remedial purposes and employed only when necessary. No amount of theory as to how speech is produced can replace guided practice in actually producing it. The fact that one learns to speak by speaking is not merely a truism; in audio-lingual instruction it is an inescapable imperative.

In preparing materials and planning activities to teach pronunciation and speaking, the teacher should be guided by the following principles:

1. After initial hearing and understanding, repeated mimicry to the point of automatic recall represents the first stage of learning to speak the foreign language; hence the importance of memorizing dialogues, conversations, action series and responses.

2. At this stage, frequent choral recitation will overcome shyness and maximize perticipation. Language laboratory techniques may be used for mimicry drill but only to fortify what has been previously learned by guided imitation of the teacher. Speech analysis should be used for eliminating inaccuracies of oral production that do not yield to repeated attempts at imitation.

3. Development of speaking facility follows as the result of growth in articulatory control of word-structure patterns. Such control is achieved through various types of word and structure drills; e.g., substitution, replacement, cued responses, variation, transformation, directed conversation, and independent responses.

Reading

The difference between reading and speaking is greater in Chinese than in all other foreign languages because of the difficulty of memorizing a Chinese ideograph as compared with learning a word written in a latinized script. In addition, the difference between the spoken and written forms adds to the disparity between the spoken and written language. Reading, therefore, should not be introduced until after the pupil has acquired mastery of the basic sound patterns and some facility in the use of basic dialogue structures.

Visual interference or blockage due to sound-spelling differences between English and the foreign language will generally be minimized as a result of pre-reading, audio-lingual instruction. Furthermore, just as there is an interdependence between understanding and speaking, there is a similar interdependence between reading and writing, so that practice in writing (copying, dictation, etc.) will facilitate the visual recognition of printed words which is essential for fluent reading.

The transition to the reading of new material can begin in the same sequence as posited in the guiding principles for the learning of language in general; namely: listening (oral reading or paraphrase by the teacher); speaking (oral repetition by pupils; answers to questions); reading (first chorally, then individually); and writing (completions or whole-sentence answers to content questions).

Intensive Reading

Fluency in reading is dependent on quick recognition and comprehension of printed words and structure patterns. Such recognition will facilitate the rhythmic progression of eye movements which is characteristic of fluent reading with comprehension. Failure to recognize these patterns results in pauses and regressive eye movements which are symptomatic of decoding or translating processes and hence the direct antithesis of fluent reading. In view of these factors, teaching the reading of new material should begin with advance clearance of possible blocks to pronunciation and comprehension; that is, with the study of pronunciation and meanings of new words and new or complex syntactical items. This should be done by the teacher during his first reading or paraphrase and, ideally, should be conducted entirely in Chinese (by means of synonyms, antonyms, examples, definitions and simplified restatement). These items should be written on the board, explained and pronounced by the teacher, and then repeated chorally by the class to insure correct pronunciation in subsequent individual reading and responses. Not until this advance clearance of blocks has been accomplished can pupils be expected to read new material with fluency and comprehension.

The following steps are suggested for the intensive reading lesson:

1. After initial motivation, the teacher paraphrases or reads the passage, in whole or in part, asking questions in Chinese to check comprehension. To insure attention, books are closed during this first step.

2. As new words or phrases are encountered, they are listed on the board and their meanings taught by means of synonyms, antonyms, examples, definitions, cognates, word analysis, contextual inference, etc. The teacher leads the class in choral pronunciation of the listed items.

3. Books are opened and the teacher reads a part of the passage orally, with suitable expression and dramatic effect. He points out the new items on the board as he comes to them in the course of his reading. He then leads the class in choral reading of the same selection.

4. If the content is simple, the teacher may then immediately call on individual pupils to read the same selection orally. Otherwise, the class first reads the selection silently and the teacher asks comhension questions before requiring individual oral reading.

5. The entire passage or story is then read in phases, alternating choral, silent, and individual oral reading. If the reading passage is lengthy, selected parts of it may be covered by silent reading only, according to the procedure explained below under "Silent Reading."

6. The teacher, or a selected pupil, writes questions and/or comprehension exercises on the board, the answers to which will form a summary of the entire passage or story. If the passage or story is long, a prepared question-slip can be given to a pupil at the end of each phase of the reading so that all questions and answers will be on the board by the time the entire passage has been completed.

Silent Reading

At a later stage, extensive silent reading of new material should be practiced for rapid grasp of content and greater extent of coverage. In silent reading, pupils should be trained in techniques of inference from cognates, word analysis and context (the "intelligent guess"). Also appropriate at this point is instruction in the discriminative use of end vocabularies and of the bilingual dictionary. Silent reading should be carefully controlled to avoid superficial skimming of the printed text. After initial motivation, the teacher writes on the board the page and line limits of the selection to be read; the time allowed for completing the reading; clues to clearance of comprehension blocks; and key questions to guide the reading and permit self-checking of comprehension. While the pupils read silently, the teacher walks around the room to render individual assistance. An oral summary based on the key questions, or a written comprehension quiz concludes the silent reading lesson. Silent reading may also be combined with intensive reading, especially in lengthy reading passages.

Supplementary Reading

Outside reading in English is justifiable in foreign language study because it enables pupils to explore Chinese cultural backgrounds some years before they can achieve sufficient mastery in reading Chinese on a level comparable to the interest and maturity of their English reading. It will therefore help to maintain interest in the study of Chinese, contribute to the aim of cultural enrichment, and provide correlation with other subject areas (English, Social Studies, etc.). Supplementary reading in English will also enable the teacher to plan a regular schedule of homework assignments during the pre-reading phase of audio-lingual instruction. However, this type of reading is of minor importance linguistically because one obviously does not learn to read Chinese by reading English.

A recommended procedure is the following: (a) pupils consult the reading lists for their particular level and record their choices on slips; (b) each pupil reads to the class the description of his chosen book and gives a reason for his choice; (c) the teacher sets up a schedule of dates for reports and supplies the class with mimeographed outlines to be filled in by the pupils; (d) interim reports may be given to check on progress and to maintain interest; (e) reports may be oral or written and should follow the outline supplied by the teacher; (f) one report per day can be taken up in the first few minutes of the lesson. Caution: not more than twenty minutes per week should be devoted to such reports.

The following is a recapitulation of the principles to be observed by the teacher in planning activities to promote reading skill and in selecting or preparing reading materials:

1. Reading readiness is reached at the end of the pre-reading phase of audio-lingual instruction, i.e., after the pupils have mastered the basic sound-structure patterns of Chinese. In the beginning, pupils should read only what they have learned to understand and to pronounce.

2. The transition to the reading of new material should be through intensive reading instruction and should follow the learning sequence of listening and repeating before reading. Blocks to comprehension and fluency should be cleared up before the reading begins.

3. Silent reading for quick grasp of content should be systematically practiced in addition to intensive reading. Definite timing, comprehension clues and content questions provide the necessary controls.

4. Reading matter should have intrinsic interest, cultural value, and should correspond to pupil experience, real or potential.

Writing

The skills of direct comprehension in listening to and in reading Chinese are reinforced by writing what has been heard and seen. Similarly, the correct writing of what the pupil can pronounce may act as a reinforcement of speaking skill, especially for visual-minded pupils. The difficulty of learning to read and write Chinese characters as contrasted with learning to read and write a European language makes it advisable to postpone systematic practice in writing until the pre-reading phase of audio-lingual instruction has been completed. During the instructional period of Level I, the pupil may be introduced to basic strokes, the stroke order, the basic components and the groups of character components. The determination of what Chinese characters to introduce will depend upon the vocabulary which will be taught at a particular level. The determination of the vocabulary items will depend in turn on the readings of the course. The frequency of vocabulary items in modern expository prose will also be a determining factor.

A limited amount of writing in Chinese during the pre-reading phase of instruction may be introduced through weekly calligraphy sessions. The pupil may try his hand at writing with a Chinese writing brush by tracing calligraphy patterns. This is an excellent motivational device for teaching the pupil to understand the necessity for proper stroke order, to acquire a sense of proportion, to know the components of the various characters and to appreciate the beauty and art of Chinese writing. Such writing activities are to be treated as a part of word study and may include labeling or the printing of titles or captions. This may be done on outline maps, pictures of objects in a room, color charts, pictures of members of the family, animals, flowers and trees, floor plans, furniture, etc. Compiling a picture dictionary is also a valuable means of vocabulary learning.

Pupils should be encouraged to prepare their own flashcards with an English equivalent on the back. Activities of this type are designed to promote "writing readiness" and are suitable in Level I as a prelude to imitative writing, especially for younger children.

Imitative Writing

When first introduced systematically, writing should be practiced with subject matter which the pupil has already mastered audio-lingually and experienced visually through reading. Such writing is termed "imitative writing" and consists of copying memorized or familiar material. Imitative writing should be practiced frequently, using a few key sentences taken from a dialogue, or other material, a lesson or two previous to the one currently being learned. Writing memorized or familiar material from dictation is a more complex form of practice which, at this stage, should be done only with material that has first been practiced by copying. Using complete phrase or sentence units in coherent context will prevent imitative writing from becoming a mechanical exercise devoid of meaning.

Dictation

A further variation of imitative writing would extend to the copying and, later, writing from dictation, of already memorized dialogues, dialogue adaptations, drills and rhymes or songs. A transition from imitative writing to dictation is "spot dictation," in which the teacher reads an entire sentence which the pupil sees on his practice sheet, but with one word missing, which he supplies in writing. After reading has been introduced, short selections from a reading passage may be used for copying practice and for subsequent writing from dictation. For dictation purposes, the passage should consist of a few lines in context, carefully screened to eliminate unfamiliar vocabulary and structures. Where such screening would disrupt the context, the teacher should write the unfamiliar items on the board for pupils to copy. Due to the greater difficulty in learning written Chinese compared to other languages, the mastery of written vocabulary by the pupil compared to European languages would be far less. For Levels I-II therefore, the pupil may be permitted to intermingle proper romanization with the characters in his dictation exercises until he has mastered enough characters to do a dictation selection without reliance on romanizations.

When planning a schedule of dictations, the teacher should keep the following in mind: (a) dictation should be given at regular and frequent intervals as a reinforcement of auditory comprehension, as an aid to retention, as a review, and as a diagnosis of errors; (b) the passage selected should be closely related to the particular structural point, idiom, or pronunciation topic being taught or reviewed; (c) the time element should be carefully controlled so that dictation is only part of a larger language learning unit and not an end in itself; (d) the same dictation may be given later for re-teaching or testing; (e) the pupil should keep dictations in a notebook so that he will have a record of his errors and corrections to be reviewed before the next dictation; (f) gifted pupils or native speakers should be trained to give dictations and conduct correction work; (g) recorded dictations may also be used for dictation practice.

A suggested procedure for administering dictation is: (a) the teacher selects a reliable pupil to write his dictation on the rear board; (b) before the first reading, the teacher introduces the passage with a brief motivating comment; (c) he reads the entire passage at normal tempo while the pupils listen; (d) at the second reading, the teacher reads the passage in breath groups, giving punctuation in the foreign language, while the pupils write; choral repetition may ensue at this point before the pupils write; (e) a third reading follows at normal tempo while pupils proofread their work, correcting errors and filling in omissions; (f) pupils may then exchange papers for correction; (g) the class volunteers suggestions for correcting the work at the rear board; (h) corrections are made by the class secretary and the entire corrected passage serves as a model for the corrections being made by the class; (i) a final critique summarizes the most common errors and the techniques for avoiding them in future written work.

Guided Writing

After the basic sound-spelling patterns of Chinese have been mastered through imitative writing and dictation, practice in writing short completions or answers may be started. Since this intermediate phase in the development of writing skill consists of short, written responses guided by the teacher, such writing practice is termed "guided writing." Included in this type of writing are (a) completions of statements based on dialogues; (b) completions of pattern drills; (c) answers to dialogue questions; and (d) answers to reading-comprehension questions. Careful grading of all these forms of writing stimuli is necessary to keep the written responses on the same level which the pupils have attained audio-lingually and visually. Progression in difficulty should be gradual so as to minimize errors.

Controlled Writing

A subsequent stage of writing practice begins with the writing of directed dialogue; i.e., the teacher instructs the pupils, either in English or in Chinese to write what they would say or ask or do in a given dialogue situation. Accurately written responses of this type depend on previously acquired facility gained through transformation and substitution drills. Since the written responses are controlled by the teacher's instructions relative to dialogue variation, this type of writing practice is called "controlled writing." Similar transformation of dialogue material, controlled by the teacher, includes the writing of dictated dialogue with tense or person changes. After basic reading skills have been established, further controlled writing can be done by rewriting a narrative passage in dialogue form, or vice versa. Rewriting a dialogue or reading passage in the form of a letter represents a more advanced type of controlled writing. The culminating stage of controlled writing is reached with the writing of a summary, entirely in the foreign language, either of a dialogue or of a reading passage. The summary may first be done orally, with oral or written cues supplied by the teacher. Written cues or a phrase outline on the board will then control the final summary.

The following is a summary of the principles to be observed by the teacher in planning and carrying out a systematic program to develop writing skills:

1. The aim of writing practice is to achieve automatic accuracy in reproducing in written form the basic patterns of the Chinese language.

2. Systematic practice in writing Chinese begins after the pre-reading phase of language learning. During the pre-reading phase, a program of writing or printing which leads to "writing readiness" may accompany word study. Activities leading to "writing readiness" consist chiefly of labeling pictures, charts and maps, compiling picture dictionaries, and calligraphy practice.

3. Development of writing skill progresses from simple to increasingly complex forms of writing practice on the principle of "minimal increment"; i.e., the addition of one new feature at a time to reduce possibilities of error.

4. After "writing readiness" activities, the simplest forms of Chinese writing practice are copying and writing from dictation previously memorized or familiar material; i.e., "imitative writing."

5. Dictation of familiar material should be a part of every language learning unit. Passages for dictation should be keyed to the level of audio-lingual and reading mastery already attained by pupils.

6. Next in order of complexity after imitative writing is practice in "guided writing" of short completions or answers. Written responses expected of pupils should not exceed levels already attained.

7. "Controlled writing" begins with the writing of dialogues and progresses to the writing of dialogue adaptations and pattern drills. More advanced forms of controlled writing include changes of form from narrative to dialogue and vice versa. The writing of cued summaries is the final phase that leads to directed composition.

PATTERNS FOR DRILL

Constructing and Using Pattern Drills

Pattern practice is essentially "the learning of language structure through the repetition of utterances in which the patterns (of sound, order, form and choice) are either identical or have only small and consistent differences." (Politzer, R. L.: Foreign Language Learning: A Linguistic Introduction). With many repetitions and manipulations of acceptable, meaningful utterances drawn from the basic dialogues, pupils perceive the pattern and begin to automatize it.

Learning is carried on through the language; grammatical analysis gives way to learning by analogy; class time is devoted almost entirely to the building of language habits instead of the development of language rules.

Politzer identifies a pattern or structure as "the common element of different sentences or phrases which have the same structural meaning." A single sentence, clause or phrase in the foreign language is not a pattern in itself out an example of a pattern. The pattern gives the grammatical relationships; the structural meaning remains the same even when lexical items in the utterance are replaced. In the utterance jeige nanhaidz jyau Gwo-Ying (這個男孩子叫國英), we may substitute jeige sysuyan (這個少年), jeige ren (這個人), jeige swesheng (這個學生), etc. for jeige nanhaidz (這個男孩子) and/or we may substitute Gwo Chang (國強), Ta Wei (大衛), Wen Gwang (文光), etc., for Gwo Ying (國英), without altering the basic structural meaning or the grammatical relationships. The many new responses created from the original pattern example will help to develop an automatic response to the overall pattern which has remained constant.

Pattern example: Jeige nanhaidz jyau Gwo Ying. 這個男孩子叫國英

Substitution 1. Jeige sywesheng 這個學生

Substitution 2. Gwo Chyang 國強

Substitution 3. Jeige syaunyan 這個少年

Substitution 4. Da Wei 大衛

Substitution 5. Jeige ren 這個人

Substitution 6. Wen Gwang 文光

Substitution 7. Jeige sywetu 這個學徒

The pattern example Jeige nanhaidz jyau Gwo Ying may be called a frame with three slots.

Slot 1	Slot 2	Slot 3
Jeige nanhaidz	jyau	Gwo Ying
這個男孩子	叫	國英

In the substitution drill outlined above (a progressive substitution), slots one and three are replaced alternately. Earlier drills with the pattern example would have comprised a series of substitutions with slot one, followed by a series of substitutions with slot three and culminating with the progressive substitution.

Pedagogical Values of Pattern Drills

1. Many repetitions and manipulations of authentic patterns of speech enable students to automatize responses more rapidly.

2. Emphasis upon analogy through foreign language patterns presented and practiced audio-lingually eliminates obstructive features of grammatical dissection and formal terminology.

3. Students are made to produce correct utterances from authentic models; they do not construct or create utterances of their own.

4. Correction is immediate.

Developing Pattern Drills

Many recent foreign language textbooks include in the pupil edition and/or in the teacher's manual a variety of pattern drills. Until such texts are adopted uniformly, it will be necessary for the teacher to adapt a traditional text, developing patterns as examples from text material. The following suggestions may be useful in the selection of pattern examples and in the development of pattern drills.

1. The model sentence should come wholly or in large part from the dialogue or text material.

2. Select for extensive drill those frames which differ most widely from the native language in sound, order or form.

3. Drill one structure at a time.

4. Employ sufficient practice for mastery of the structure being drilled.

Conducting Pattern Drills

1. The drills are to be introduced and conducted orally without reference to the written symbol.

2. Several choral repetitions of pattern models and variants (pattern examples with appropriate changes) are made.

3. Specific instruction--in English if necessary--must be given to pupils on the change to be made and the way to make it.

4. After a sufficient number of complete repetitions, the teacher's cue is followed by choral, group and individual responses.

5. The tempo should be rapid, encouraging immediate responses and discouraging analysis or translation.

6. A grammatical generalization may be given after the drill is completed

Dialogues and Related Drills

An analysis of a suggested unit for Level I which includes a dialogue and a series of related drills will provide concrete suggestions for the development of suitable classroom activities.

The basic dialogue is the "core" of the unit. It is important for drills to be related to actual situations that may be encountered in the country or countries where the language is spoken. The relationship between the structural patterns and real situations is best determined through the medium of the dialogue.

1. The dialogue should be relatively short, consisting of no more than eight lines.

2. No more than two or three roles should be included in a context of situational interest to adolescents.

3. The learning procedure should include:

   a. *Exposition or English Equivalencies*

      Students should be given the English equivalencies of the foreign language utterances to insure comprehension.

   b. *Stage One: Dialogue for Listening*

      Teacher reads complete dialogue at normal speed several times from various parts of the room as pupils listen. Teacher reads each utterance several times as pupils listen.

   c. *Stage Two: Dialogue for Learning*

      Utterances are built up cumulatively, often going from the end of the sentence to the beginning. Pupils repeat in chorus, in groups, by rows and individually. The pyramid drill for *Jintyan women yikwaier kan dyanying* (今天我們一塊兒看電影), is as follows:

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看電影
kan dyanying

一塊兒看電影
yikwaier kan dyanying

今天我們一塊兒看電影
Jintyan women yikwaier kan dyanying.

d. Stage Three: Dialogue for Fluency

Each utterance is spoken twice by the teacher with enough time allowed between them so the student can repeat.

e. Stage Four: Dialogue for Comprehension

Repetition of dialogue as presented in Stage One with different voices (perhaps recorded on tape). Pairs of individual pupils may recite roles of the dialogue.

SUGGESTED DIALOGUE AND DRILLS, LEVEL I

Suggested Dialogue

Gwo Ying 國英	1. Jintyan women yikwaier kan dyanying. 今天我們一塊兒看電影
Da Wei 大衛	2. Hau, women shemma shrhou kan? 好，我們什麽时候看？
Gwo Ying 國英	3. Women jintyan wanshang badyanjung chyu kan. 我們今天晚上八點鐘去看
Da Wei 大衛	4. Dyanyingywan li jer hen ywan ma? 電影院離這兒很遠嗎？
Gwo Ying 國英	5. Buywan, shr dzai fujin. 不遠，是在附近
Da Wei 大衛	6. Hau, women chyu ba. 好，我們去吧

Dialogue Adaptation

The dialogue adaptation helps to personalize the dialogue utterances and assists in the memorization of the various dialogue lines. The structural items and vocabulary of the dialogue are now included in questions to individual pupils, in which they assume their own identities rather than those of Gwo Ying (國英) and Da Wei (大衛).

In the directed dialogue and relay drills, pupils ask questions of the teacher at teacher's cue, e.g., Ching ni wen wo dyanyingywan li jer ywan ma? (請你問我電影院離這兒遠嗎？). Pupils are also directed to ask questions of their classmates, e.g., Ching ni wen Gwo Ying tade jya li dyanyingywan ywan bu ywan. (請你問國英他的家離電影院遠不遠？).

1. Personalized Conversation

Question-answer practice between teacher and pupil based on the dialogue.

T. Dyanyingywan li jer buywan, nide jya li jer ywanbuywan?
電影院離這兒不遠，你的家離這兒遠不遠？

P. Wode jya li jer buywan.
我的家離這兒不遠

2. Relay Drill (Chain Drill)

Question-answer practice begun by the teacher and continued from pupil to pupil.

T. Dyanyingywan li jer buywan, nide jya li jer ywanbuywan?
電影院離這兒不遠，你的家離這兒遠不遠？

P. Widejya li jer buywan.
我的家離這兒不遠

T. Ching ni wen Gwo Ying, nide jya li jer ywanbuywan?
請你問國英，你的家離這兒遠不遠？

P. Gwo Ying, nide jya li jer ywanbuywan?
國英，你的家離這兒遠不遠？

P. Wode jya li jer buywan.
我的家離這兒不遠

3. Directed Dialogue

Question-answer practice between two individuals directed by the teacher.

T. Ching ni wen wo, dyanyingywan li jer ywanbuywan?
請你問我，電影院離這兒遠不遠？

P. Syansheng, dyanyingywan li jer ywanbuywan?
先生，電影院離這兒遠不遠？

T. Dyanyingywan li jer buywan.
電影院離這兒不遠

T. Ching ni wen Mei Ying dyanyingywan li jer ywanbuywan?
請你問美英電影院離這兒遠不遠？

P. Mei Ying, dyanyingywan li jer ywanbuywan?
美英，電影院離這兒遠不遠？

P. Dyanyingywan li jer buywan.
電影院離這兒不遠

. Gwo Ying, ching ni wen Mei Ying dyanyingywan li jer ywanbuywan.
國英，請你問美英電影院離這兒遠不遠。

P. Mei Ying, dyanyingywan li jer ywanbuywan?
美英，電影院離這兒遠不遠？

T. Mei Ying, ching ni hweida ta dyanyingywan li jer buywan.
美英，請你回答他電影院離這兒不遠

P. Dyanyingywan li jer buywan.
電影院離這兒不遠

Use the same drills with the following:

T. Dyanyingywan butaiywan. Da Wei, dyanyingywan li jer butaiywan
電影院不太遠。大衛，電影院離這兒不太遠
ma?
嗎？

P. Dyanyingywan li jer butaiywan.
電影院離這兒不太遠

T. Dyanyingywan dzai Chung Shan lu. Jer shr shemma lu?
電影院在中山路。這兒是什麼路？

P. Jer shr Ching Shan lu.
這兒是中山路。

Structure Drills

1. Repetition Drill

The repetition drill is the basic drill for the presentation of new vocabulary and new structural items. Note that complete meaningful utterances are used.

離這兒
li jer

我的家離這兒不遠
Wode jya li jer buywan.

你的家離這兒不遠
Nide jya li jer buywan.

他們的家離這兒不遠
Tamende jya li jer buywan.

李老師的家離這兒不遠
Li lau shrde jya li jer buywan.

王太太的家離這兒不遠
Wang taitaide jya li jer buywan.

張開明的家離這兒不遠
Jang Kai Mingde jya li jer buywan.

2. Substitution Drills

In this type of drill, the pupils are asked to replace a new word within the sentence pattern. The teacher repeats the model sentence two or three times in order to reinforce the structural pattern and correct the pronunciation.

Teacher:	Pupil:
張開明的家離這兒不遠 Jang Kai Mingde Jya li jer buywan.	張開明的家離這兒不遠 Jang Kai Mingde Jya li jer buywan.
學校 Sywesyau	張開明的學校離這兒不遠 Jang Kai Mingde sywesyau li jer buywan.
鄉下 Syangsya	張開明的鄉下離這兒不遠 Jang Kai Mingde syangsya li jer buywan.
辦公室 Ban gungshr	張開明的辦公室離這兒 Jang Kai Mingde ban gungshr li jer 不遠 buywan.

Other types of substitution drill involve replacements in one or another slot in a frame.

今天我們在家看書
Example: (Phrase) Jintyan women dzai jya kanshu.

在學校
Teacher cue: (dzai sywesyau)

今天我們在學校看書
Pupil response: Jintyan women dzai sywesyau kanshu.

在圖書館
Teacher cue: (dzai tushugwan)

今天我們在圖書館看書
Pupil response: Jintyan women dzai tushugwan kanshu.

3. Transformation Drills

Transformation drills involve changing models from singular to plural, from plural to singular, from affirmative to negative, from declarative to interrogative, and substituting a pronoun for a noun. The student should be told in English if necessary--with models and variants--exactly which changes he will be asked to make.

Examples:

a. Changing singular to plural and vice versa

Teacher:	Pupil:
我看電影 Wo kan dyanying.	我們看電影 Women kan dyanying.
你看電影 Ni kan dyanying.	你們看電影 Nimen kan dyanying.

b. Changing noun to pronoun

國英看電影 Gwo Ying kan dyanying.	他看電影 Ta kan dyanying.
國英跟大衛看電影 Gwo Ying gen da Wei kan dyanying.	他們看電影 Tamen kan dyanying.

c. Changing from affirmative to negative (after negative has been taught)

我看電影 Wo kan dyanying.	我不看電影 Wo bukan dyanying.
他看報 Ta kan bau.	他不看報 Ta bukan bau.
學生看書 Sywesheng kan shu.	學生不看報 Sywesheng bukan shu.

d. Changing from declarative to interrogative

Ta kan dyanying. 他看電影	Ta kan dyanying ma? 他看電影嗎？
Ni kan dyanying. 你看電影	Ni kan dyanying ma? 你看電影嗎？
Tamen kan dyanying. 他們看電影	Tamen kan dyanying ma? 他們看電影嗎？

4. Response Drills

These are drills in which the answers are patterned after the questions and in which the structures and vocabulary of the dialogue can be drilled in a natural situation. The order of questions is from the simple to the complex: a yes or no response, a choice of items, a cued response and finally a complete answer.

Teacher:	Pupil:
a. Positive or Negative	
Wang syaujye, ni hau ma? 王小姐，你好嗎？	Hau, nine? 好，你呢？
	Buhau, Nine? 不好，你呢？
b. Choice	
Ni kan dyanying bukan? 你看電影不看？	Wo kan dyanying. 我看電影
	Wo bukan dyanying. 我不看電影
c. Cued	
(Bau) 報 Ni kan shemma? 你看什麼	Wo kan bau. 我看報
(Shu) 書 Ta kan shemma 他看什麼	Ta kan shu. 他看書
d. Complete	
Tamen dzai nar kan dyan ying? 他們在那兒看電影！	Tamen dzai chenglitou kan 他們在城裏頭看 dyanying. 電影

5. Replacement Drill

This drill has been described above as a progressive substitution drill. Two or more slots are replaced in regular order but only one substitution is made at one time. It is a somewhat difficult drill since pupils must listen carefully to the cues for different slots and must make immediate and accurate replacements in the utterance. Several repetitions of this drill are recommended.

Example:

Teacher:	Pupil:
國英 跟 大衛 看 電影 Gwo Ying gen Da Wei kan dyanying.	國英 跟 大衛 看 電影 Gwo Ying gen Da Wei kan dyanying.
他們 Tamen________________.	他們 看 電影 Tamen kan dyanying.
書 ________________shu.	他們 看 書 Tamen kan shu.
王 先生 Wang syansheng__________.	王 先生 看 電影 Wang syansheng kan dyanying.
王 先生 跟 他們 Wang syansheng gen tamen_____.	王 先生 跟 他們 看 電影 Wang syansheng gen tamen kan dyanying.
國英 跟 大衛 Gwo Ying gen Da Wei_______.	國英 跟 大衛 看 電影 Gwo Ying gen Da Wei kan dyanying.

6. Expansion Drill

In this drill, the original sentence is expanded at each step by the addition of a word or phrase.

Example:

Kan dyanying. 看電影

Women kan dyanying. 我們看電影

Women gen ta kan dyanying. 我們跟他看電影

Women gen ta kan Meigwo dyanying. 我們跟他看美國電影

TEXTBOOK ADAPTATION

At the present time the number of pedagogically suitable "kits" of integrated audio-lingual materials is limited. Although new materials of this type are being published to an increasing extent, and earlier materials are being reissued in revised editions, they are all in a state of transition and must still be considered experimental. It would be foolhardy to attempt to replace all present textbooks with materials that are still in the experimental stage, even if this were financially possible; but a beginning can be made to a limited extent and on a trial basis. For the most part, however, it will be necessary for the teacher to adapt already available textbooks to the audio-lingual approach.

Fortunately, most of our available textbooks begin with an aural-oral approach and contain dialogues and passages that can easily be adapted to the new program of instruction. Adaptation of the textbook, whether of the old or of the new type, will in any case be necessary, for there is no one-to-one correspondence between the scope and sequence of topics in this bulletin and any presently available textbook or new-type kits.

The adaptation of the beginning lessons of the textbook in the form of daily lesson units is of great importance in order to articulate the content of pre-textbook instruction with subsequent use of the textbook after reading and writing have been introduced. The adaptation may be done by a planning committee of all the teachers of beginning classes in a particular language. Patricia O'Connor (see Bibliography) recommends the following procedure for this committee:

1. Determine the number of class periods to be devoted to pre-textbook instruction.

2. Using the present bulletin, make a selective inventory of those Level I structures, vocabulary and idioms which can be taught for audio-lingual mastery within the time determined above.

3. Compare this inventory with the beginning lessons of the textbook, and record the lesson and page numbers where the inventory items occur.

4. Select from the textbook those dialogues or basic sentences which illustrate the inventory items, and construct additional basic sentences if necessary.

5. Divide the list of inventory items and basic sentences into one-period presentation units, using the section of this bulletin entitled Patterns for Drill as a model.

6. Provide for recurrence of inventory items in the presentation units, and draw up review units after every few presentation units.

7. Determine appropriate audio-lingual methods for each presentation unit, using as a model the sections of this syllabus entitled Developing the Language Skills, Levels I and II.

8. Prepare a final teaching script for each daily unit to be presented during the entire period of pre-textbook instruction.

USE OF THE TAPE RECORDER

Audio-lingual procedures call for specific use of audio aids. Teachers will, of course, adapt these aids to the particular needs of their classes. The most important classroom audio aid is the tape recorder. Some suggestions for using the recorder are:

1. Basic dialogues, vocabulary, and structures may be recorded for presentation and for drill. The script should be spaced to allow enough time for pupil repetition or response. Such a drill device can be used again and again.
2. Music may be recorded in advance to accompany songs.
3. Pupils' speech should be taped at various stages for recording progress and for diagnosing needs for further drill and correction.
4. Stories based on previous learnings may be recorded for purposes of testing comprehension.
5. Material relevant to the course of study may be taped in advance and used in the classroom.
6. The use of taped material should be limited generally to short periods (10 to 15 minutes).

Preparation of Tapes by Teachers

Operation of the tape recorder requires practice by the teacher. Help is available in every school to aid teachers not familiar with the operation of the tape recorder.

1. Making the First Tape
    a. Learn the mechanics of operating the recorder.
    b. Have a prepared script, such as the basic dailogue or review story of the unit.
    c. The recorded speech must be at normal speed.
    d. Read the script and then play back the tape and listen to your voice. Your voice will sound strange to you, particularly if you have never heard it on a recording.
    e. You may need to experiment with tone and volume control. Since the recordings on tapes are easily erased, the same tape may be used many times for practice until you master the techniques and get the results you need.

2. Other Suggestions for Preparing Tapes

   a. In taping a song for the first time, arrange for the assistance of the music department.

   b. In taping pattern drills, provide space (pauses) on the tape sufficient for pupil practice of each model expression.

   c. Taping a variety of voices, male and female, is recommended in ear training so that the pupil does not become accustomed to hearing only one voice and to comprehending only when he hears that voice.

HOMEWORK

A planned schedule of definite homework assignments from the very beginning of the Chinese course is essential to inculcate proper study habits and to reinforce habits of pronunciation acquired during the first weeks of instruction. Consequently, during the pre-textbook phase, homework assignments should be oral and should be based only on material the pronunciation, rhythm and intonation of which have been firmly established under teacher guidance in the classroom. Only what has been mastered orally in class should be assigned for home practice. Ideally, this would entail the provision of individual "take-home" recordings which are supplied by many publishers of basic textbooks and of so-called "integrated language programs" which include sets of tapes and/or recordings to accompany the audio-lingual textbook.

If individual take-home records are not available, it is advisable, during the first few weeks of the pre-textbook phase, to plan area and background assignments in English. Brief reports of these assignments can be given, one per day, at the beginning of the class period. Suitable topics are:

1. Orientation discussions by pupils with their parents (What are our present-day individual and national needs in foreign languages? Why are reading and writing postponed in favor of audio-lingual practice? etc., etc.)

2. Values of the study of Chinese (cultural, vocational)

3. Cultural geography of China

4. Chinese ethnic and language islands in the community and in the United States

5. Exports and imports between China and the United States

6. United States relations with China (political, cultural)

7. Contributions of the Chinese nation to the civilization of the United States and the world

8. Chinese literary masterpieces in English translation
9. Masterpieces of Chinese poets and painters
10. Chinese celebrities in art, science, industry, and politics
11. Chinese influences in the community (dress, customs, films, shops, newspapers, radio programs, cultural organizations)
12. Famous Chinese philosophers and writers

When the "writing readiness" program is instituted, homework possibilities are increased. Suitable assignments at this stage are:

1. Filling in mimeographed outline maps
2. Labeling news and magazine clippings to illustrate vocabulary learned in class
3. Compiling a picture dictionary
4. Drawing sketches to illustrate the topic of a dialogue which pupils have learned and which they can then describe in class in Chinese
5. Making a color chart labeled in Chinese
6. Drawing a floor plan of the classroom or of the home, labeling rooms, furniture, etc.
7. Drawing and labeling a costume chart
8. Making a calendar with the names of the days and months in Chinese
9. Listing and illustrating a menu in Chinese
10. Pasting coins or stamps on a chart and labeling their names and denominations
11. Drawing up an itinerary of a projected trip to China
12. Drawing or clipping a picture of a common school or household appliance, or of a vehicle, giving its Chinese name and labeling its parts in Chinese
13. Making a dummy passport, with the pupil's picture and requisite data
14. Learning a specified number of Chinese characters
15. Calligraphy practice with a Chinese brush
16. Making a drawing of the human figure and labeling the parts of the body in Chinese

When reading is introduced, homework assignments may be given for the reading of dialogues, of selected reading passages, and of controlled or original dialogues or skits. In the beginning stages of writing instruction, assignments will include copying of selected material that has been mastered audio-lingually and visually. This will be followed by written homework involving pattern drills, variations, substitutions, transformations and complete answers to dialogue and to reading comprehension questions. Assignment of selected textbook exercises will become a regular feature of homework after reading and writing have been introduced.

The general principles to be observed in planning and assigning homework are:

1. Homework should be based on what has been learned in class.
2. Oral practice of the assignment in class should always precede work that the pupils are to do at home.
3. Homework should be properly motivated and precise directions given as to the extent of the work and the operations to be performed.
4. The assignment should not be too complex or too lengthy.
5. Provision should be made for individual differences; i.e., an extra amount, or a more difficult exercise, should be made optional for extra credit.
6. Correction of homework under teacher supervision should follow regularly after each assignment.

THE TEACHING OF CULTURE

INTRODUCTION. Culture is a many-faceted study that embraces the social sciences, anthropology, and the arts. Aspects of culture treated by the social sciences are chiefly history, geography, economics and politics. Anthropology, or the science of human behavior, studies a much broader field which includes the whole cultural environment of a linguistic area e.g., social organization, ethnic characteristics, modes of behavior, education, customs, folkways, value systems, etc. Pertinent to the arts are the study of literature, music, dance, sculpture, architecture, etc. Considering its many ramifications, the field of cultural study is so vast that it presents a problem of selection and time scheduling to the foreign language teacher, whose main concern must be the teaching of the foreign language itself.

Attempting to superimpose a complete course in Chinese culture upon the time-consuming business of teaching Chinese is obviously impossible within the time allotted. Selecting a few random topics of culture such as writers, musicians, scientists, statesmen, etc., is also unsatisfactory, for this generally leads to fragmentary knowledge. However, if we follow the suggestion of R. L. Politzer, Foreign Language Learning: A Linguistic Introduction, and define culture as the totality of the ways of life of a language community, and if we view language as the essential medium for its expression, then we affirm the identity between language and culture which makes teaching the one tantamount to teaching the other. In other words, we can teach the foreign culture in and through the foreign language itself.

LANGUAGE AS CULTURE. From the point of view of language as culture, the cultural subject matter to be taught is contained in the basic textbook or in the materials of instruction. The dialogues learned during the pre-textbook phase contain cultural data which are integral with language. For example, an inevitable concomitant of teaching the forms of address is teaching the social customs and situations which determine the use of one form rather than another. The very rules for using the forms of address afford cultural insights as to the psychology of the foreign people; their attitudes of respect for elders and strangers, their sensitivity to nuances of speech reflecting family relationships, degrees of intimacy, and differences of age and of social status. All of these insights represent cultural data which are taught integrally with linguistic skills.

CULTURE IN THE PRE-READING PHASE. In order to teach culture in terms of insights into the ways of life of the foreign people as reflected in their everyday speech, the teacher should make an inventory of culture-laden structures, vocabulary, idioms, proverbs, sayings, etc. which occur in the lessons to be covered audio-lingually during the pre-reading phase. After each such item, the teacher should note its cultural implications, as was done above with the forms of address. The list of linguistic-cultural topics so derived, furnishes the cultural subject matter to be taught and tested during the pre-reading phase. Most of the following topics suggested to the teacher have been abstracted from a cultural inventory by Nelson Brooks, Language and Language Learning.

Linguistic-Cultural Topics

1. forms of address
2. greetings and farewells
3. polite phrases
4. intonation and meaning
5. use of expletives
6. levels of speech
7. the number system
8. radicals and loan-words
9. formation of compounds
10. proverbs and sayings
11. rhymes, jingles and songs
12. classroom expressions
13. formulas for introductions
14. phrases used in telephoning

No attempt has been made to apply these topics to any particular textbook. Each teacher will adapt these suggested topics to the textbook or materials being used. Only those topics which actually occur in the teacher's own inventory should be taken up during the pre-reading phase. Topics should be treated in their natural dialogue context. Cultural contrasts and comparisons should be brought out by reference to pupils' experiences. To avoid excessive explanations in English, appropriate responses in Chinese and appropriate actions and behavior should be the criteria for judging whether pupils have learned, in a functional sense, the linguistic-cultural implications of a dialogue situation. Whenever possible, the teacher should make use of audio-visual aids keyed to the textbook or teaching materials.

CULTURE IN READING AND WRITING READINESS ACTIVITIES. As was indicated in previous sections of this bulletin, a certain amount of reading in English, and of writing in either English or in Chinese, would be done during the pre-reading phase of instruction. Reading and writing, at this early stage, were referred to as "reading readiness" and "writing readiness" activities. It was recommended that these activities should not be overemphasized at the expense of language learning practice.

One of the principal values of these activities is that they permit the exploration of cultural backgrounds beyond the strictly linguistic-cultural topics suggested above. Outside reading in English, for example, could conceivably range over this entire gamut of Chinese culture, limited only by the time available and the maturity of the pupil. Map-making could tie in with geography and travel; making a calendar, with holidays and festivals; drawing and labeling an anatomical chart, with physical exercise and health; drawing a costume picture, with native garb and contrasts in dress and grooming; etc.

In planning and assigning such activities and projects, economy of time should be a guiding principle. It is neither necessary nor advisable at this stage, to treat these topics exhaustively. The systematic study of culture need not begin until later, when it can be done entirely in Chinese via a cultural reader.

CULTURE INTEGRATED WITH READING AND WRITING. In the second half of Level I, after reading and writing have been introduced, the range of cultural topics will be widened to include some which are not strictly of the linguistic-cultural type given above. These cultural topics will still inevitably retain linguistic overtones, but increasing emphasis will be placed on the situations and content of dialogues and reading material.

In addition to the broad cultural insights and appreciations afforded by the foregoing cultural topics, both linguistic and situational, specific cultural data for Levels I and II are listed under the Content and Scope for these levels. This is done to provide a body of common learnings dealing with Chinese culture for all pupils in Levels I and II, no matter in which division or grade they happen to be. Similarly, cultural data for subsequent levels are given under Content and Scope in each level.

THE TEACHING OF CULTURE IN LEVEL II. The same general principles already established for the teaching of culture in the various stages of Level I should govern the theory and practice of teaching culture in Level II. Topics already begun may now be resumed, but previously acquired knowledge and insights should be rounded out and enriched. Culture topics or cultural lessons in the textbook should be taken up or elaborated when they become pertinent as a result of pupils' interests, observations and experiences.

In addition, some of the previously treated topics which may have been omitted can now be taken up if they occur in the lessons of Level II. As previously stated, cultural topics are listed under Content and Scope, Levels I and II. These should serve as a checklist for the teacher to determine which topics have been omitted. However, whether the topic is old or new, its treatment should be integrated with the teaching of the Chinese language, should emphasize features of everyday life in China and, above all, should aim at the acquisition of insights and appreciations rather than an agglomeration of miscellaneous facts. It may be reasonably assumed that by the end of Levels I and II, pupils will have acquired in the ways suggested above, an experience-based, functional body of knowledge, insights and appreciations that fulfill the cultural aims posited for these levels.

Below is a summary of the principles and practices to be observed by the teacher in planning and teaching the program of cultural study:

1. Language is the essential medium by which the members of a speech community express the whole complex of their ways of life, which constitutes their culture.

2. The study of culture, therefore, is to be viewed from the perspective of everyday life in the foreign speech community in situations comparable to those which confront American pupils.

3. The aim of cultural study is to acquire understanding, insights, attitudes and appreciations rather than encyclopedic information.

4. Since language is fraught with cultural meanings, the approach to the study of culture should be through the foreign language, i.e., the cultural implications of linguistic elements.

5. As far as possible, culture should be taught in the Chinese language as a concomitant of teaching linguistic skills. Appropriate responses in Chinese and appropriate actions and behavior may be taken as evidence of functional understanding of the implications of a cultural situation.

6. The further study of culture is rounded out and enriched by activities, projects and reports based on pupils' interests, observations and experiences, and made pertinent by cultural references in the textbook and by current allusions in mass media of information. In addition, to insure acquisition of common learnings, specific cultural data are listed for all pupils under Content and Scope for each level.

7. Audio-visual aids should be geared to the textbook or teaching materials. The classroom should evoke the atmosphere of the foreign culture through pictures, charts, posters and displays, preferably made or contributed by pupils.

CONTENT AND SCOPE, LEVEL I

SOUND SYSTEM AND ROMANIZATION (TRANSCRIPTION) SYSTEM, LEVEL I

1. Syllable structure
   a. Initial
   b. Final
   c. Tone
2. Romanization (Transcription) system. Dependent on choice of teacher and the textbook selected.
   a. Wade-Giles
   b. Yale
   c. pinyin (New Latin)
   d. National Phonetic

GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURES

The structures listed in Levels I and II are to be taught for mastery within the limits indicated. The model sentences and phrases are illustrations of the applications intended. This does not preclude the occurrence, in a particular level, of structures other than those listed here; but such other structures are not to be drilled for mastery; they are to be treated as vocabulary items. Following this principle, the teacher may make use of whatever vocabulary and patterns are natural in a particular dialogue, limiting intensive drill only to those items which appear in this list.

Level I: First Half

1. Nouns
   a. Specified
      Jeige ren 這個人
      Neige ren 那個人
   b. Numbered
      Sange ren 三個人
      Wuge sywesheng 五個學生

2. Pronouns

   a. Personal

      Wo, ni, ta 我，你，他

   b. Interrogative

      Shei, shemma, dzemma 誰，什麼，怎麼

   c. Demonstrative

      Jei, na, jeisye 這，那，這些

3. Measures (Classifiers, Numeratives)

   a. ge 個

   b. jr 枝

   c. ben 本

   d. fu 幅

   e. jyan 件

   f. shwang 雙

   g. tyau 條

   h. ban 般，班

   i. ke 顆

4. Verbs

   a. Action verbs

      chr, chang nyan 吃，唱，唸

   b. Stative verb (Adjectives)

      mang, hau gau 忙，好，高

   c. Co-verbs

      1. Indicating direction

         dzai as in "Wo dzai jer changger".
         在 我在這兒唱歌兒

      2. Of Interest

         gen, gei ti, yung, dwei 跟，給，替，用，對

3. Of motion and direction

   lai and chyu 來, 去

d. Auxiliary verbs

   hwei (會) as in "Wo hwei shwohwa" (我會說話).

e. Compound verbs

   1. verb plus co-verb

      Syachyu, shangchyu 下去, 上去

   2. verb complement construction

      renshr, mingbai 認識, 明白

   3. resultative compound

      chrwan, kanjyan, dzwowan 食完, 看見, 做完

   4. verb-object

      Wo ai chrfan 我爱吃飯

f. Other types of verbs

   1. the copula "shr" (是)

      Jei shr shu. 這是書

   2. Equative verbs

      Ta sying Lee. 他姓李

      Ni jyau shemma. 你叫什麼

5. Adjectives (Stative verbs) functioning as verbs

   Wo mang. Ta gau. 我忙. 他高

   a. Use of adjectives "youde...youde..." (有的 ... 有的...)
      in parallel construction to present contrast

      Youde nanren hau, youde nanren buhau. 有的男人好, 有的男人不好.

   b. Use of "yousye...yousye..." (有些 ... 有些 ...) as above

6. Adverbs

   a. Fixed

      hen mang, tai dwo, ye hau 很忙, 太多, 也好

   b. Movable

      可是 我的表慢, 可是他的表快

      keshr as in "Wode byau man, keshu tade byau kwai."

   c. Use of "dou" (都)

      Women dou hau. 我們都好

7. Particles, prefixes and suffixes

   a. Use of "men" (們) added to pronouns and some nouns to denote plurality

   b. "Ma" (嗎) added to end of sentence to form simple interrogative

   c. Negative particle "mei" (沒) before "you" (有)

   d. "Mei" (沒) or "meiyou" (沒有) when prefixed to verbs negates verb or entire predicate

   e. "Bu" (不) prefixed to verbs to negate

   f. Prefixing of "di" (第) to form ordinal numbers

   g. Use of "dz" (子) as a noun suffix as in "yidz" (椅子)

   h. Use of "ne" (呢) to show continuance

      Tamen syandzai sanbu ne. 他們現在散步呢

   i. Use of "ne" (呢) in questions

      Ni ne? 你呢?

   j. Use of structural particle "de" (的) to modify or to show possession

      Wode shu. 我的書

   k. Use of "le" (了) to verbs and sentences to show completed action

      Tamen dzoule. 他們走了

1. Use of "ba" (吧) as a final particle, as a polite imperative and to express uncertainty

   Hau ba. 好吧

   Ni chyu ba. 你去吧

   Ta bulai ba. 他不來吧

8. Sentences

   a. Simple equational

      Ta mang 他忙

   b. Simple with adverbial modifiers

      Ta hen mang. 他很忙

   c. Complex

      1. Use of a construction

         Shenti jyankang hen jungyau. 身體健康很重要

      2. Use of co-ordinate elements

         Didi, jyejye gen wo dou dzai Nyuywe nyanshu.
         弟弟，姐姐跟我都在紐約念書

9. Negatives

   a. Use of "bu" (不)

   b. Use of "meiyou" (沒有)

   c. Use of "bu" (不) before two adjectives which are antonyms or the construction "bu...ye bu..." (不 ... 也不) to indicate "neither...nor" or a medium

      Budwo bushau or budwo ye bushau.
      不多不少 不多也不少

10. Interrogative Forms

    a. Simple direct, by use of a particle at the end of a statement

       Ni you ma? Ni hau ma? 你有嗎？ 你好嗎？

b. Choice type or affirmative-negative construction

Ni you meiyou shu? Ni you shu meiyou? Ta shr bushr?
你有沒有書? 你有書沒有? 他是不是?

c. Simple negative forms

Ta bugau ma? 他不高嗎?

d. Question words or the use of interrogative pronouns and adjectives

Shei? Shemma? Na? Dwoshau? 誰? 什麼? 那? 多少?

11. Numerals

a. Cardinals 1-100, 1000

b. Use of "ling" (零)

c. Telephone numbers

d. Comparison of "er" (二) and "lyang" (兩)

e. Ordinals 1-100 by use of prefix "di" (第)

f. Money counting

12. Time expressions

a. Days, weeks, months, and seasons

1. Distinguish use of "libai" (禮拜" and "syingchi" (星期)
2. Distinguish use of "jengywe" (正月) and "yiywe" (一月)

b. Dates

1. Omission of classifier "ge" (個) before "nyan" (年),
"tyan" (天) and "r" (日)
Yinyan, yir, yityan 一年, 一日, 一天

Use of "r" (日) and "hau" (号) in dates

c. Telling time

d. Age

13. Special uses of "le" (了).

a. Completed action

Ta yijing dzoule 他已經走了

b. Changed status

Wo buai nyanshule. 我不愛念書了

c. Imminent action

Women yau kaushrle. 我們要考試了

d. Emphasis and euphony

Haule. Mingtyan jyan. 好了，明天見

e. Single verb followed by "le" (了) with dependent clause.

Women kauleshr, jyou hweijyale. 我們考了試就回家了

f. Single or double "le" (了) with measured objects.

Wo kanle sanbenle. 我看了三本了

g. When time element follows the verb.

Women nyanle lyang nyande Jungwen. 我念了兩年的中文

14. Comparison

a. Use of "yidyaner" (一點兒).

Wo neng shwo yi dyaner. 我能說一點兒

b. Use of "dasyau" (大小).

Ta bi wo syau. 他比我小

c. Use of "bi" (比) in comparing two things.

Ta bi wo gau. 他比我高

15. Supposition or conditional

    a. Use of "yaushr...jyou..." (要是 ... 就)

       Yaushr ta bulai, women jyou buchyule.
       要是他不來，我們就不去了

    b. Use of "rwoshr" (若是) as a synonym for "yaushr" (要是)

16. Reduplication of verbs and nouns to indicate plural number or emphasis or both, sometimes with the insertion of "yi" (一) between verbs

    Kankan or kanyikan 看看，看一看

    Renren 人人

Level I: Second Half

1. Nouns

    a. Modified by other nouns

       Nin taitai. 您太太

       Wo fumu. 我父母

    b. Modified by stative verbs

       Hau ren. 好人

    c. Modified by clauses

       Shwohwade ren 說話的人

2. Pronouns

    a. Before personalized and specified nouns

       Ta taitai. 他太太

       We jeiben shu. 我這本書

    b. Demonstrative "mei" (每)

       Meige syweshenq. 每個學生

3. Measure

   a. Verbal measures "tsz" (次), "yisyaer" (一些兒), and "hwei" (回)

      Ta laile lyangtsz. 他來了兩次

      Ta kangwo lyang hwei. 他看過兩次

      Jeige wenti, wo yau syang yi syaer. 這個問題，我要想一些兒

   b. Verbal measures "byaner" (邊兒), and "bu" (部)

      Taipingyang dzai Junggwode dung byaner.
      太平洋 在 中國 的東邊兒

      Nyuywe dzai Meigwode dungbu.
      紐約在 美國的東部

4. Verbs

   a. Auxiliary verbs "hwei" (會) and "yau" (要) to indicate Future

      Wo yau dzwogung. 我要做工

      Ta hwei kan wo. 他會看我

   b. Distinction among optative verbs "neng" (能), "hwei" (會), and "keyi" (可以)

      Wo neng sye hen dwo dz. 我能寫很多字

      Ta hwei shwo Junggwo hwa. 他會說中國話

      Ni keyi dzou. 你可以走

   c. Use of "gwo" (過) as a co-verb to indicate past tense

      Wo kangwole. 我看過了

   d. Use of "gei" (給) as a main verb, co-verb and preposition

      Wo gei ta sanben shu. 我給他三本書

Wo mai gei ni yiben shu. 我買給你一本書

Wo gei ta dzwofan. 我給他做飯

e. Use of co-verb "ba" (把) construction.

Wo ba ta dale. 我把他打了

Ba jeige gei ta. 把這個給他

f. Compound verbs with "lai" (來) and "chyu" (去).

Jinlai 進來	Jinchyu 進去
Syalai 下來	Syachyu 下去
Hweilai 回來	Hweichyu 回去

5. Adverbs

a. Distinction among "hai" (還), "ye" (也), and "dzai" (再).

Ni hai meidau ma? 你還未到嗎?

Ni chyu, wo ye chyu. 你去我也去?

Mingtyan dzai shwo. 明天再說

b. Addition of "shr" to emphasize.

Ta hai shr meilai. 他還是未來

Ta jen shr hau. 他真是好

6. Particles and suffixes

a. Diminutive suffix "er" (兒) and "dz" (子).

Jer 這兒	Yikwar 一塊兒
Erdz 兒子	Bendz 本子

b. Use of the particle "swo" (所).

1. As a relative pronoun

Ta swo shwode hwa. 他所說的話

2. To mean all or all that there are in the construction "swo youde" (所有的).

Swo youde ren dou hen kechi. 所有的人都很客氣

3. To mean therefore or thereby in the pattern "swoyi" (所以)

   Yinwei ta hen ben, swoyi kaubushang. 因為他很笨，所以考不上

c. Use of the particle "de" (的)

1. As a pronoun

   Nande 男的　　　　Nyude 女的

2. To indicate the posssessive case

   Wode byau. 我的表

3. To indicate past tense

   Ta shemma shrhou laide? 他什麼時候來的

4. To connect modifiers with that which is modified

   Nyan laude ren. 年老的人

5. To form participles

   Jeishr wo syede. 這是我寫的

6. To form compound adverbs

   Man mande. 慢慢的

7. To indicate an occupation in a verb-noun phrase

   Jyau shude. 教書的　　Mai maide. 買賣的

8. To present a contrast in parallel constructions

   Youde ren hau, youde ren buhau. 有的人好，有的人不好

9. Omissions of "de" (的)

   Hau ren. 好人

   Leng tyan. 冷天

   Wo jya. 我家

d. On the use of the particle "jyou" (就) also known as a fixed adverb

Wo jyou lai. 我就来

Wo jyou you yiben shu. 我就有一本書

Ta jyou bulai, wo ye yau chyu. 他就不來，我也要去。

e. Use of "le" (了)

1. To show past tense

Tamen laile. 他們来了

2. To show present perfect

Tamen dou chuchyule. 他們都出去了

3. To indicate past perfect

Na shrhou wo yijing dzoule. 那时候我已經走了

4. To indicate categorical affirmativeness

Syingle. 行了

7. Comparison

a. Superlative of adjectives by use of "dzwei" (最) before and "de" (的) after the adjective

Dzwei haude. 最好的

b. Degrees of comparison with adverbs "geng" (更) and "dzwei" (最)

Jer hen re, keshr nar geng re. 這兒很熱，那兒更熱

Sange ren, nage dzwei gau? 三個人那個最高？

8. Interrogative

a. Use of alternatives

Ni chyu haishr buchyu? 你去還是不去？

b. Use of "ne" (呢)

Ni gen pengyou chyu ne, haishr dzji yige ren chyu?
你跟朋友去呢，還是自己一個人去？

9. Relative time

   a. Use of "yichyan" (以前).

      Yichyan wo shr jyauywan. 以前我是教員

   b. Use of "yihou" (以後).

      Wo chrfan yihou, jyou nyanshu. 我吃飯以後，就念書

   c. Use of construction "...de shrhou" (...的時候).

      Wo dau jyadeshrhou, fumu hai mei hwei lai. 我到家的時候，父母還未回來

10. Numerals

   a. Enumeration from 100 upwards

   b. Wan (萬) and "wanwan" (萬萬) groups

   c. Fractions

TOPICAL VOCABULARY LISTS, LEVEL I

These topical vocabulary lists represent selected items taken from the alphabetical lists and grouped around specific topics to facilitate conversation and composition. They do not include idiomatic expressions.

1. SCHOOL

sywesyau	學校	nansyweshang	男學生	fangjya	放假
sywechi	學期	jyautang	教堂	sywesheng	學生
tushugwan	圖書館	syansheng	先生	dasywe	大學
fusyaujang	副校長	jyauywan	教員	jungsywe	中學
syake	下課	dyanming	點名	syausywe	小學
shangke	上課	dyanmingban	點名班		
nyusywesheng	女學生	syaujang	校長		

2. CLASSROOM

chwanghu	窗戶
gwochi	國旗
dajung	打鐘
koushr	口試
bishr	筆試
kaushr	考試
fenbi	粉筆
kaubuhau	考不好
mwoshweibi	墨水筆
chyanbi	鉛筆
fenshu	分數
yitangke	一堂課
shwadz	刷子
heiban	黑板
hwar	畫兒
jung	鐘
ditu	地圖
jyaushr	教室
keshr	課室
ketang	課堂
ban	班
syousyi	休息
hege	合格
yidz	椅子
jwodz	桌子
houmen	後門
chyanmen	前門

3. LESSON

gungke	功課
shu	書
bendz	本子
keben	課本
jr	紙
nyanshu	念書
ye	頁
dwan	段
bu	部
hang	行
jyangdau	講到
rungyi	容易
nan	難
yunggung	用功
wensyi	溫習
hweihwa	會話
fanyi	繙譯

4. HOMEWORK

kewaigungke	課外功課
syedz	寫字
syedzbu	寫字部
hunggejr	紅格紙
gai	改
taying	答應
hweida	回答
wenti	問題
shufa	書法
shengdz	生字
lyansyi	練習
lyansyibu	練習部
kewaihwodung	課外活動

5. LANGUAGE

waigwohwa 外國話
gwoyu 國語
Yingwen 英文
Yinggwohwa 英國話
Fawen 法文
Fagwohwa 法國話
Jungwen 中文

Junggwohwa 中國話
Syibanyawen 西班牙文
Syibanyahwa 西班牙話
Dewen 德文
Degwohwa 德國話
Youtaiwen 猶太文
Youtaihwa 猶太話

Ewen 俄文
Egwohwa 俄國話
shwohwa 說話
dung 懂
fanyi 繙譯

6. FAMILY

jya 家
jyating 家庭
fuchin 父親
baba 爸爸
muchin 母親
mama 媽媽
fumu 父母
erdz 兒子
nyuer 女兒

dzufu 祖父
yeye 爺爺
dzumu 祖母
nainai 奶奶
syungdi 兄弟
gege 哥哥
didi 弟弟
jyemei 姊妹
jyejye 姊姊

meimei 妹妹
syauhaidz 小孩子
syansheng 先生
jangfu 丈夫
taitai 太太
furen 夫人
chinchi 親戚

7. OCCUPATIONS

jyaushude 教書的
jyauywan 教員
gungren 工人
nungren 農人
yisheng 醫生
daifu 大夫

mushr 牧師
yadaifu 牙大夫
yayi 牙醫
gungchengshr 工程師
lyushr 律師
lujyun 陸軍

haijyun 海軍
kanhu 看護
hushr 護士
jingcha 警察

8. COLORS

yanse	顏色
yanshai	顏色
bai	白
hei	黑
hung	紅
hwang	黃
ching	青
lyu	綠
lan	藍
fenhung	粉紅
jyuhwang	橘黃
dzung	棕
hwei	灰
shen	深
chyan	淺

9. CLOTHING

yifu	衣服
chwan	穿
shoutauer	手套兒
wadz	襪子
kudz	褲子
shweiyi	睡衣
yaudai	腰帶
two	脫
dai	戴
gwadz	褂子
sye	鞋
shoujin	手巾
lingdai	領帶
yishang	衣裳
twosyalai	脫下來
chenshan	襯衫
mauyi	毛衣
pisye	皮鞋
dayi	大衣
maudz	帽子

10. DAYS AND WEEKS

libai	禮拜
libair	禮拜日
libaityan	禮拜天
libaiyi	禮拜一
libaier	禮拜二
libaisan	禮拜三
libaisz	禮拜四
libaiwu	禮拜五
libailyou	禮拜六
syingchi	星期
syingchir	星期日
syingchityan	星期天
syingchiyi	星期一
syingchier	星期二
syingchisan	星期三
syingchisz	星期四
syingchiwu	星期五
syingchilyou	星期六
yigesyingchi	一個星期
yigelibai	一個禮拜
shanglibai	上禮拜
shangsyingchi	上星期
syalibai	下禮拜
syasyingchi	下星期

11. MONTHS

yiywe 一月
erywe 二月
sanywe 三月
szywe 四月
wuywe 五月
lyouywe 六月
chiywe 七月
baywe 八月
jyouywe 九月
shrywe 十月
shryiywe 十一月
shrerywe 十二月

12. SEASONS AND HOLIDAYS

chwunji 春季
chwuntyan 春天
syaji 夏季
syatyan 夏天
chyouji 秋季
chyoutyan 秋天
dungji 冬季
dungtyan 冬天
gwochingr 國慶日
jye 節
shengr 生日
yesu 耶穌
Fuhwojye 復活節
Shengdanjye 聖誕節
Syeenjye 謝恩節
Ganenjye 感恩節
Shengdanlauren 聖誕老人
Shengdanka 聖誕卡
Syinnyanjye 新年節
Gwosyinnyan 過新年
wuywejye 五月節
Dwanwujye 端午節
Baywejye 八月節
Jungchyoujye 中秋節

13. CARDINAL NUMBERS

1-100
ling 零
bai 百
chyan 千
wan 萬
shrwan 十萬
baiwan 百萬
chyanwan 千萬
wanwan 萬萬
shrwanwan 十萬萬

14. ORDINAL NUMBERS

(These are formed by using "di" (第) before the cardinal number.)

diyi 第一

dier, etc. 第二

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

15. ARITHMETIC

jya	加	chyan	千	chu	除
cheng	乘	dengyu(shr)	等於(是)	fenshu	分數
er(lyang) fenjryi	二(兩)分之一	yiban	一半	sanfenjryi	三分之一
baifenjryi	百分之一	baifenjrbai	百分之百		

16. TIME

yidyanjung	一點鐘	mingtyan	明天	shangwu	上午
yigejungtou	一個鐘頭	chyantyan	前天	jungwu	中午
yifenjung	一分鐘	dachyantyan	大前天	syawu	下午
yimiaujung	一秒鐘	houtyan	後天	wanshang	晚上
bandyanjung	半點鐘	dahoutyan	大後天	dzau	早
bangejungtou	半個鐘頭	meityan	每天	dzaushang	早上
jintyan	今天	tyantyan	天天	shrhou	時候
dzwotyan	昨天	meilyangtyan	每兩天	shrjyan	時間

17. ANIMALS

dungwu	動物	nyauer	鳥兒	tsangying	蒼蠅
mau	貓	shu	鼠	wendz	蚊子
nyou	牛	ju	豬	yu	魚
hou	猴	yang	羊	jinyu	金魚
lyu	驢	lauhu	老虎	tuer	兔兒
ma	馬	lang	狼		

18. FRUITS AND FLOWERS

shweigwo	水菓	jyudz	橘子	tsau	草
pinggwo	蘋果	tau	桃	shweisyahwa	水仙花

syangjyau	香蕉
putau	葡萄
ningmeng	檸檬
syigwa	西瓜
hwa	花
shu	樹
chyangwei	薔薇
kai	開
jyauhwa	澆花

19. TOPOGRAPHICAL FEATURES

hai	海
he	河
shan	山
jyang	江
Dasyiyang	大西洋
Haiyang	海洋
kungchi	空氣
senlin	森林
shanshwei	山水
shulindz	樹林子
Taipingyang	太平洋
taiyang	太陽
yang	洋
ywelyang	月亮
tyankung	天空
tsaudi	草地

20. COUNTRY AND SEASHORE

fangjya	放假
jyachi	假期
shujya	暑假
syangsya	鄉下
syangsyaren	鄉下人
tyandi	田地
lu	路
ywandz	園子
hwaywandz	花園子
haibyan	海邊
haitan	海灘
lang	浪
shatan	沙灘

21. WEATHER

kungchi	空氣
leng	冷
nwan	暖
feng	風
syayu	下雨
yun	雲
tyanchi	天氣
re	熱
ywelyang	月亮
sywe	雪
lyangkwai	涼快
taiyang	太陽
gwafeng	颳風
yu	雨
syasywe	下雪

22. PARTS OF THE BODY

shenti	身體
toufa	頭髮
yanjing	眼睛
bidz	鼻子
koudz	口子
lyandz	臉子
ya	牙
erdwo	耳朵
shou	手
shoujr	手指
syung	胸
dzwei	嘴
twei	腿
jyau	脚
syin	心

23. HEALTH

shenti	身體
bing	病
shengbing	生病
fashau	發燒
faleng	發冷
yiywan	醫院
jaulyang	着涼
shangfeng	傷風
yisheng	醫生
daifu	大夫
bushufu	不舒服
toutung	頭痛
lei	累
jungle	腫了
dajen	打針
yatung	牙痛
tiwenbyau	體温表
redu	熱度
weisheng	衛生

24. THE HOUSE

fangdz	房子
wudz	屋子
menkouer	門口兒
chyanmen	前門
houmen	後門
syidzaufang	洗澡房
wofang	臥房
fanting	飯廳
chufang	廚房
tszswo	廁所
keting	客廳
tsenglou	層樓
louti	樓梯

25. FURNITURE

jwodz	桌子
deng	燈
yidz	椅子
chwang	床
bingsyang	冰箱
dengdz	櫈子

dengpauer	燈泡兒	dyanshrji	電視機	taideng	枱燈
yigwei	衣櫃	shujyadz	書架子		
gweidz	櫃子	gangchin	鋼琴		

26. MEALS

chrfan	吃飯	e	餓	yanghwo	洋火
dzaufan	早飯	ke	渴	kaulu	烤爐
wufan	午飯	kwaidz	筷子	chabei	茶杯
wanfan	晚飯	chrdz	匙子	chafang	茶房
kaifan	開飯	cha	叉	wan	碗
dzwofan	做飯	dyedz	碟子	chau	炒
fangwaner	飯館兒	tsaidandz	菜單子		
syitsan	西餐	daudz	刀子		

27. FOOD

fan	飯	tang	湯	nyoupai	牛排
ji	雞	jurou	豬肉	nyourou	牛肉
yangrou	羊肉	yu	魚	chingtsai	青菜
syihungshr	西紅柿	jyou	酒	myanbau	麵包
nyouyou	牛油	tang	糖	yan	鹽
chouyan	抽煙	chryan	吃煙	dyansyin	點心
bingjiling	冰激凌	jidzer	雞子兒	jyangyou	醬油
tsu	醋	hujyau	胡椒	hwanggwa	黃瓜
syigwa	西瓜	doufu	豆腐	hwotwei	火腿
yadz	鴨子	jyouchyan	酒錢	jangdan	賬單
ganbei	乾杯	lungsya	龍蝦		

28. BEVERAGES

kaishwei	開水
cha	茶
bingcha	冰茶
nyounai	牛奶
bingshwei	冰水
shaujyou	燒酒
kafei	咖啡
koukou	蔻蔻
gwodzshwei	菓子水
jyudzshwei	橘子水
jyudzjr	橘子汁
dzaidau yipei	再倒一杯
syushang	續上

29. THE CITY

chengshr	城市
dushr	都市
malu	馬路
dajye	大街
hutung	胡同
gungywan	公園
jyautung	交通
yinhang	銀行
chejan	車站
chenglitou	城裏頭
chengwaitou	城外頭
wang	往
lugwo	路過
difang	地方
gwai	拐
menpai	門牌
lukouer	路口兒
jai	窄
kwan	寬
ping	平

30. BUILDINGS AND MATERIALS

lou	樓
bwowugwan	博物館
bwowuywan	博物院
chyau	橋
libaitang	禮拜堂
jyautang	教堂
jwan	磚
tye	鐵
mu	木
judz	竹子

31. SHOPPING

maimai	買賣
maimaide	買賣的
baihwogungsz	百貨公司
pudz	舖子
shudyan	書店
dzahwodyan	雜貨店
pyanyi	便宜
gwei	貴
chyan	錢
jyachyan	價錢
shangren	商人
shrchang	市場

32. SOCIAL RELATIONS

syansheng	先生	kechihwa	客氣話	daying	答應
taitai	太太	tanhwa	談話	renshr	認識
syaujye	小姐	hweihwa	會話	jyouyang	久仰
jyeshau	介紹	kaiwansyau	開玩笑	sweibyan	隨便
jyegwang	借光	kaisyau	開笑	tingshwo	聽說
kechi	客氣	tingjyan	聽見		

33. COUNTRIES AND NATIONALITIES

gwo	國	Fagwo	法國	Egwo	俄國
gwojya	國家	Fagworen	法國人	Egworen	俄國人
gwomin	國民	Rben	日本	Yidali	意大利
Meigwo	美國	Rbenren	日本人	Yidaliren	意大利人
Meigworen	美國人	Syibanya	西班牙	Yigwo	意國
Junggwo	中國人	Syibanyaren	西班牙人	Yinggwo	英國
Junggworen	中國人	Sulyan	蘇聯	Yinggworen	英國人

34. DIRECTIONS AND LOCATIONS

dung	東	syibei	西北	yijr	一直
nan	南	dungnan	東南	jin	近
syi	西	syinan	西南	ywan	遠
bei	北	dzwobyanr	左邊兒	dweimyan	對面
fangsyang	方向	youbyanr	右邊兒		
dungbei	東北	pangbyanr	旁邊兒		

35. TRAVEL

yangche	洋車	chapyauywan	查票員	shrjyanpyau	時間表
chefu	車夫	syingli	行李	chwan	船

chiche	汽車
gunggungchiche	公共汽車
dyanche	電車
ting	停
jyautung	交通
hwoche	火車
chejan	車站
wenshrchu	問事處
pyau	票
pibao	皮包
syangdz	箱子
jyaufu	腳夫
ganshang	趕上
tebyekwaiche	特別快車
shweiche	睡車
fanche	飯車
laihweipyau	來回票
toudeng	頭等
matou	碼頭
haikou	海口
fandyan	飯店
lyugwan	旅館
lyusying	旅行
lyuke	旅客
feiji	飛機
feijichang	飛機場
shangche	上車

36. AMUSEMENTS

changger	唱歌兒
dyanying	電影
dyanyingywan	電影院
yinywe	音樂
dyanshr	電視
shouyinji	收音機
yousyi	遊戲
youyung	游泳
youyungchrdz	游泳池子
dzsyingche	自行車
tyauwu	跳舞
dachyou	打球
chima	騎馬
yundungchang	運動場
syiywan	戲院
sanbu	散步
saipao	賽跑
bisai	比賽

37. WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

chrtswun	尺寸
ma	碼
li	里
lyang	量
jung	重
ching	輕
gau	高
ai	矮
chang	長
dwan	短
gwan	寬
jai	窄
mou	畝
changdwan	長短
gwanjai	寬窄

38. SCHOOL SUBJECTS

Jungwen	中文
Yingwen	英文
Gwowen	國文
shusywe	數學
fayin	發音
pinyin	拼音
dzwowen	作文
mwoshu	默書
dili	地理
lishr	歷史
waigwohwa	外國話
sywanke	選科

39. WHERE?

jeli	這裏
jeer	這兒
dzainaer	在那兒
dzainali	在那裏
dzaijeli	在這裏
shang	上
sya	下
wai	外
nei	內
jung	中
waitou	外頭
nali	那裏
naer	那兒
nali	那裏
naer	那兒
chyan	前
chyanmyan	前面
hou	後
you	左
dzwoyou	左右
jungjyan	中間
litou	裏頭
limyan	裏面
libyan	裏邊
dzaijeer	在這兒

40. QUANTITY

dwoshau	多少
hendwo	很多
yidyaner	一點兒
taidwo	太多
chabudwo	差不多
taishau	太少
yisye	一些
mei	沒
meiyou	沒有
yidyar	一點兒
gou	夠
bugou	不夠
youjige	有幾個
youjidwo	有幾多

IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS

Level I: First Half

1. Honorifics or Polite Terms
    - a. Nin for ni. 您 你
    - b. Nin hau a? 您好啊
    - c. Gwei sying. 貴姓
    - d. Bi sying. 敝姓
    - e. Syansheng. 先生
    - f. Laushr. 老師
    - g. Ching 請
    - h. Ching wen. 請問
    - i. Bu kechi. 不客氣
    - j. Dweibuchi. 對不起
    - k. Dweibuju. 對不住
    - l. Syesye nin. 謝謝您
    - m. Man dzou, man dzou. 慢走，慢走
    - n. Man chr, man chr. 慢吃，慢吃
2. Dzaijyan 再見
3. Shrbushr 是不是
4. Dzau or Nin dzau. 早．您早
5. Jityan 幾天
6. Jige ren 幾個人
7. Shr laige ren 十來個人
8. Shr jige ren 十幾個人
9. Dachyantyan 大前天
10. Dahoutyan 大後天

11. Sya sya libai. 下下禮拜
12. Sya hwei 下回
13. Chyu nyan 去年
14. Hou nyan 後年
15. Chyan nyan 前年
16. Hweilai hweichyu 回來回去
17. Shrhou budzaule 時候不早了
18. Ni shwo ba 你說吧
19. Sya yu 下雨
20. Sya sywe 下雪
21. Tyan chingle 天晴了
22. Tai wan 太晚
23. Ni wanle 你晚了
24. Dwei budwei 對不對
25. Dasyau 大小
26. Gauai 高矮
27. Changdwan 長短
28. Chingjung 輕重
29. Dwochang? 多長？
30. Dwogau? 多高？
31. Hau jityan? 好幾天？
32. Kanyikan 看一看
33. Jeng hau 正好
34. You shemma shr? 有甚麼事？
35. Meiyou shemma shr 沒有什麼事
36. Yilyang tyan 一兩天

37. Lyangsange ywe	兩三個月
38. Shang bannyan	上半年
39. Sya bannyan	下半年
40. Syandzai jidyan jung?	現在幾點鐘？
41. Haukan	好看
42. Bainyan, bainyan	拜年、拜年
43. Gungsyi, gungsyi	恭喜、恭喜
44. Chabudwo	差不多
45. Bucha dwosyau	不差多少
46. Dzauwan ta yau lai	早晚他要來
47. Jwei bushang ta	追不上他
48. Ta hen gauda	他很高大
49. Wo burenshŕ ta	我不認識他
50. Gwochyule	過去了

Level I: Second Half

1. Honorifics or Polite Terms

a. Laushr dzaijyan	老師再見
b. Ching dzwo	請坐
c. Bye kechi	別客氣
d. Da ming?	大名？
e. Busye, busye	不謝，不謝
f. Ni chrgwole fan ma?	你吃過飯嗎？
g. Mafan ni	麻煩你
h. Gan bei	乾杯
i. Sweibyan chr	隨便吃

2. Nannyu tungsywe	男女同學
3. Keyi	可以
4. Yihwer	一會兒
5. Jiswei?	幾歲？
6. Tanyitan	談一談
7. Dzouyidzou	走一走
8. Dzwoyidzwo	坐一坐
9. Yunggung	用功
10. Da ting	打聽
11. Youmingde	有名的
12. Ke bukeyi	可不可以
13. Kai shwei	開水
14. Nangwo	難過
15. Gwode chyu	過得去
16. Gwonyan	過年
17. Gwochyu	過去
18. Shangke	上課
19. Syake	下課
20. Shangywe	上月
21. Syaywe	下月
22. Shangdeng	上等
23. Syadeng	下等
24. Buyiding	不一定
25. Haiyou	還有
26. Haishr	還是
27. Gangtsai	剛才
28. Dyansyin	點心

29. Chyouyan	抽煙
30. Jyouchyan	酒錢
31. Bye!	別
32. Chrbude	吃不得
33. Chrbulyau	吃不了
34. Dzwofan	做飯
35. Dzwotsai	做菜
36. Chrbulai	吃不來
37. Syangbudau	想不到
38. Ke ai	可爱
39. Dang myan	當面
40. Leng dan	冷淡
41. Dwo dzwei	多嘴
42. Syingle	行了
43. Busying	不行
44. Bye mang a.	別忙啊
45. Bye kaiwansyau	別開玩笑

CLASSROOM EXPRESSIONS, LEVEL I

1. Syandzai shangke le. 現在上課了

2. Ching nimen anjing yidyar. 請你們安靜一點兒

3. Ching dzwo. 請坐

4. Ching bye shwohwa. 請別說話

5. Ching ba shu dakai. 請把書打開

6. Ching janchilai shwo. 請站起來說

7. Ching jyu shou. 請舉手

8. Ching nimen kankan di__________ke. 請你們看看第 ______ 課

9. Di_________ye. 第 _____ 頁

10. Di_________dwan. 第 _____ 段

11. Di_________hang. 第 _____ 行

12. Women dzwotyan nyandau dijiye? Dijihang? Dijidwan. 我們昨天念到第幾頁？第幾行？第幾段？

13. Ching shwo Junggwohwa. 請說中國話

14. Ching yung Jungwen. 請用中文

15. Bye shwo Yingwen. 別說英文

16. Ching dasheng yidyar shwo. 請大聲一點兒說

17. Ching gen wo yikwar nyan. 請跟我一塊兒念

18. Ching genje wo nyan. 請跟着我念

19. Wo nyan yijuhwa, nimen jyou genje wo nyan yijyu. 我念一句，你們就跟着我念一句

20. Ni dung ma? Ni dung budung? 你懂嗎？你懂不懂？

21. Ching dzai shwo. 請再說

22. Ching man yidyar shwo. 請慢一點兒說

23. Ching kwai yidyar shwo. 請快一點兒說

24. Ching ba shu hechilai. Ching ba shu heshang. 請把書合起來，請把書合上

25. Ching nimen buyau (bye) kanshu. 請你們不要（別）看書

26. Ching dzai shwo yibyan. 請再說一遍

27. Syandzai syake le. 現在下課了

PROVERBS, LEVEL I

1. yi tswun gwangyin, yi tswun jin. 一寸光陰一寸金
2. yi r san chyou. 一日三秋
3. yi r chyan li. 一日千里
4. yi jyan jung ching. 一見鍾情
5. Yi ke chyan jin. 一刻千金
6. Yi jyu lyang de. 一舉兩得
7. Chi shou ba jyau. 七手八腳
8. Bu san bu sz. 不三不四
9. Chu feng tou. 出風頭
10. You tou wu wei. 有頭無尾
11. Yin syau shr da. 因小失大
12. De tswan jin chr. 得寸進尺

ALPHABETICAL CHECKLIST, LEVEL I VOCABULARY

The following alphabetical list represents the minimum vocabulary to be learned in Chinese, Level I. This list provides a checklist for the teacher in selecting words for mastery from the textbooks that are available to the teacher.

These and all other vocabulary items should be taught as part of an actual conversational sequence, not as isolated vocabulary.

ai	愛
ba	把、吧
bai	白、百
bai tyan	白天
ban	搬、半、辦
ban jya	搬家
ban tyan	半天
ban shr	辦事
ban ye	半夜
bang	幫
bang mang	幫忙
bau	抱
bei	北
bei byar	北邊兒
Beiping	北平
Beijing	北京
ben	本、笨
ben lai	本來
bi	比、必
bi dei	必得
bing	病
bu	不、部
bu bi	不必
bu chang	不常
bu dan	不但
bugandang	不敢當
bugwo	不錯
bu hwei	不會
buneng bu	不能不
busye	不謝
butswo	不錯
buyiding	不一定
buyung	不用
byan, byar	邊、邊兒
byan, pyan	便
byau	表
bye	別
bye kai wansyau	別開玩笑
cha	茶
chagwar	茶館兒
chabudwo	差不多
chawan	茶碗
chang	常、長
changchang	常常
changger	唱歌兒
che	車
chejan	車站
cheng	城
chenglitou	城裏頭
chi	七、奇、氣
chiche	汽車
chin	情
ching	請
chingchu	清楚
chingdzwo	請坐
chingwen	請問
chrfan	吃飯
chu	出
chuchyu	出去
chugwo	出國
chulai	出來
chumen	出門

chwan	船
chyan	千、錢
chyanbi	鉛筆
chyanmen	前門
chyantou	前頭
chyantyan	前天
chyu	去
chyubulyau	去不了
chyunyan	去年
da	打、大
dagai	大概
dai	代
daifu	大夫
dajang	打仗
dalu	大陸
dangran	當然
danshr	但是
dayi	大衣
dau	到
de	得
dei	得
deng	等
dengyisya	等一下
Degwo	德國
Dewen	德文
di	的、第、地、弟
disya	地下
dijr	地址
ding	定
dou	都
dung	東
dungsyi	東西
dwan	短
dwei	對
dweibuchi	對不起
dwo	多
dwoshau	多少
dwosye	多謝
dyan	點
dyansyin	點心
dyar	點兒
dz	子
dzdyan	字典
dzji	自己
dzai	在、再
dzaijyan	再見
dzau	早
dzaufan	早飯
dzaushang	早上
dzemma	怎麼
dzemma ban	怎麼辦
dzemmayang	怎麼樣
dzou	走
dzoulu	走路
dzwei	最
dzwo	做、作、坐
dzwobyar	左邊兒
dzwofan	做飯
dzwo chwan	坐船
dzwo maimai	做買賣
dzwoshr	做事
dzwotyan	昨天
dzwoyou	左右
e	餓
Egwo	俄國
Ewen	俄文
er	二
erdz	兒子
fadz	法子
Fagwo	法國
Fawen	法文
fan	飯
fangbyan	方便
fangdz	房子
fangsya	放下

fangsyin	放心
fangwar	飯館兒
fei	非,飛
feichang	非常
feiji	飛機
feijichang	飛機場
fen	分
fenkai	分開
fengjing	風景
fuchin	父親
fujin	附近
fumu	父母
ganjing	乾淨
gangbi	鋼筆
gau	高
gausying	高興
gausung	告訴
ge	個
gege	哥哥
gen	跟
geng	更
gou	夠
gushr	故事
gung	工
gungfu	工夫
gungsyi	恭喜
gwanshang	關上
gwei	貴
gweisying	貴姓
gwo	國,過
gwoger	國歌兒
hai	還
haidz	孩子
haishr	還是
hau	好
hausyang	好像
he	喝,和,合
he jyou	喝酒
hei	黑
heiban	黑板
hen	很
hou	後
houbyar	後邊兒
houlai	後來
houmen	後門
hounyan	後年
hwa	話
hwaile	壞了
hwar	畫兒
hwei	回
hweijya	回家
hweilai	回來
hwo	火
hwoche	火車
janchilai	站起来
Jang	張
jau	找
jei	這
jemma	這麼
jen	真
jenghau	正好
ji	幾
jin	進
jinchyu	進去
jinlai	進來
jinnyan	今年
jintyan	今天
jr	只,紙
jrdau	知道
ju	住
jung	中
jungfan	中飯
jungjyar	中間兒
Junggwo	中國
Jungwen	中文

jungtou	鐘頭
jwodz	桌子
jyali	家裏
jyan	見、件
jyau	教、叫
jyaushu	教書
jyeshang	街上
jyejye	姐姐
jyeshau	介紹
jyou	酒、就
jyougwar	酒館兒
jyoushr	就是
jyudz	句子
jywede	覺得
kai	開
kan	看
kanjyan	看見
kanyikan	看一看
ke	課, 可
kechi	客氣
keneng	可能
keren	客人
keshr	可是
keting	客廳
kungpa	恐怕
kwai	快、塊
lai	來
lau	老
laushr	老師
le	了
lei	累
libai	禮拜
libaiji	禮拜錢
likai	離開
litou	裏頭
lushang	路上
lyan	臉
lyang	兩
lyugwan	旅館
ma	馬、嗎、媽
mafan	麻煩
mafu	馬夫
mai	買、賣
maibuchi	買不起
man	慢
manmar lai	慢慢兒來
mang	忙
mang shemma	忙什麼
mau	毛
maubi	毛筆
maudz	帽子
mauyi	毛衣
mei	沒
mei fadz	沒法子
Meigwo	美國
mei shemma	沒什麼
meimei	妹妹
meityan	每天
meiyisz	沒意思
meiyou shemma yisz	沒有什麼意思
men	門、們
menkouar	門口兒
ming	名、明
mingbai	明白
mingtyan	明年
mingnyan	明年
muchin	母親
na (nei)	那
nachilai	拿起來
nar	那兒
nanhaidz	男孩子
nanpengyou	男朋友
nankan	難看
nanren	男人

neng	能
nide	你的
nimen	你們
nyanshu	念書
Nyouywe	紐約
nyuhaidz	女孩子
nyupengyou	女朋友
nyuren	女人
pa	怕
pau	跑
paudekwai	跑得快
pengyou	朋友
pingan	平安
pingchang	平常
pudz	鋪子
pyanyi	便宜
pyaulyang	漂亮
Rben	日本
renren	人人
renshr	認識
rungyi	容易
Rwen	日文
sanbu	散步
shan	山
shanshwei	山水
shangbyar	上邊兒
Shanghai	上海
shangke	上課
shanglai	上來
shang libai	上禮拜
shangsywe	上學
shangtsz	上次
shau	少
shei (shwei)	誰
shemma	甚麼
shemma...dou...	甚麼...都
sheng	生
shengchi	生氣
shou	手
shoubyau	手表
shr	事、時
shrching	事情
shrhou	時候
shu	書
shufang	書房
shufu	舒服
shwei	水
shweijyau	睡覺
shwohwa	說話
sung	送
swei	歲
swoyi	所以
sya	下
syachyu	下去
syake	下課
syalibai	下禮拜
syan	先
syandzai	現在
syansheng	先生
syang	想
syauhaidz	小孩子
syauhwa	笑話
syaujye	小姐
syausyin	小心
syawu	下午
syedz	寫字
syesye	謝謝
syesyin	寫信
syi	希
syihwan	喜歡
syilyan	洗臉
syin	心
syin	新
syinjr	信紙
syiwang	希望
sywe	學

sywesheng	學生
sywesyau	學校
sz	四, 死

tade	他的
taitai	太太
tamen	他們
tanhwa	談話
tang	湯, 糖
tebye	特別
ting	聽
tingshwo	聽說
tou	頭
tsai	才、菜
tsung	從
tsungming	聰明
tswo	錯
tsz	次
tyan	天
tyau	條

wai	外
waigwo	外國
waigworen	外國人
waitou	外頭
wan	完、玩、晚、萬
wanfan	晚飯
wang	往, 望, 忙
wanshang	晚上
wei	位
wei shemma	為什麼
wen	文, 問
wenti	問題
wode	我的
women	我們
wudz	屋子
wufan	午飯

yang	洋
yangdz	樣子
yanggweidz	洋鬼子
yanjing	眼鏡
yau	要
yauburan	要不然
yaubushr	要不是
yaujin	要緊
yaushr	要是
ye	也、夜
yesyu	也許
yiban	一般
yichyan	以前
yiding	一定
yidyar	一點兒
yigung	一共
yihou	以後
yihwer	一會兒
yijing	已經
yikwar	一塊兒
yilu pingan	一路平安
yingdang	應當
yinggai	應該
yinwei	因為
yisheng	醫生
yityandauwan	一天 晚
yiyang	一樣
you	有、右、又
youchyan	有錢
youdeshrhou	有的時候
you jihwei	有機會
youming	有名
youyisz	有意思
youyityan	有一天
youyung	有用
yu	魚
yubei	預備
yung	用
ywan	遠
ywanyi	願意
ywe	月、越
ywelyang	月亮

CHARACTER LEARNING, LEVEL I

1. Recognition of 400 morphemes and 850 vocabulary items.
2. Mastery of 200 to 250 characters.

CULTURE TOPICS, LEVEL I

I. Importance of Studying Chinese

A. Vocational

In a world where travel by jet has become commonplace, where there is greater interdependence in science, commerce and industry and where there is a greater need than ever for international understanding, the demand for men and women with foreign language training is increasing. There is a growing need for government employees, diplomatic and consular representatives, and industrial personnel who have a working knowledge of two or more foreign languages.

Educators and statesmen recognize that the Chinese language is a major key to understanding the Asian people, since the written language and culture of the Japanese, the Koreans, and most of the peoples of Southeast Asia are to varying degrees derived from the Chinese. More people speak Chinese than any other language in the world.

With the recent dramatic change in the United States-Chinese relationship, American interest in China has surged. Chinese-speaking Americans will be in increasing demand in government, industry, education, and other professions. In this burgeoning American-Chinese job market, the American who has a knowledge of Chinese will have a distinct vocational advantage over the American who is monolingual.

Some fields in which a knowledge of Chinese is advantageous are:

- Diplomatic service
- State Department agencies
- United Nations agencies
- Military services
- Import and export
- Foreign banking
- Teaching of Chinese
- Historical research
- Scientific research
- Travel and tourist agencies
- Publishing
- Comparative linguistics
- Library service
- Medical service

B. Avocational

Aside from the vocational uses of the language, the ability to understand and speak Chinese is of inestimable value for an appreciation of the culture, life and customs of the Chinese people.

Some avocational activities involving a knowledge of Chinese are:

- Travel
- Reading Chinese literature in the original form
- Reading local and overseas Chinese newspapers and magazines
- Enjoyment of Chinese films and lectures
- Understanding Chinese broadcasts on shortwave, and the Voice of America Chinese programs
- Communicating with visitors from Chinese-speaking areas
- Engaging in "pen pal" correspondence
- Selecting food in Chinese restaurants
- Emergency interpreting in government agencies, hospitals, schools, and commercial establishments

II. China: Its Land and People

A. Geography

1. Provincial Organization
    - a. Under the Manchu dynasty
    - b. Under the Nationalist government
    - c. Under the People's Republic of China
2. Size
    - a. Land area
    - b. Comparison with the United States and the Soviet Union
3. Topography
    - a. The loess areas of the north - rich alluvial soil deposits
    - b. The flood plains and delta of the Yangtze river in central China
    - c. The desert, steppe lands, and mountains of the west
    - d. Southern land area - rice bowl of the nation
4. Some Major Cities
    - a. Shanghai
    - b. Tientsin
    - c. Peking
    - d. Mukden (Shenyang)
    - e. Canton
    - f. Dairen-Port Arthur (Lu-ta)
    - g. Nanking
    - h. Wuhan (Hankow, Hanyang, Wuchang)
    - i. Chungking
    - j. Soochow and Hangchow
    - k. Harbin

5. Chief Rivers
    a. Yangtze River
    b. Yellow River (Huang Ho)
    c. Amur (Heilung Kiang)
    d. West River (Hsi Kiang)

6. Important Mountain Ranges
    a. Himalayas
    b. Kunlun
    c. Tienshan

B. Population

1. Size

Comparison with the most populated countries of the world

2. Ethnic Composition
    a. Han Chinese
    b. Non-Han population - Mongols, Tibetans, Uigurs, Kazakhs, and Manchus

3. Languages
    a. Mandarin Chinese
    b. Other important dialects - Wu, Min, Amoy, Hakka, and Cantonese
    c. The writing system

C. Agriculture

1. Necessity of making maximum use of arable land

2. Chief food crops - rice, wheat

3. Other food crops - millet, kaoling, barley, sweet potatoes and peanuts

4. Production of cotton

D. Industry

1. China's assets - large labor supply and good supply of coal

2. Additional resources - tungsten, antimony, salt

3. Chief industrial products - steel, electrical equipment, textiles

4. Production of atomic energy

5. Aeronautics

6. Shipbuilding

7. Exports - soya beans, raw silk, wool, hides, furs, etc.

E. Social Structure

1. Traditional Family Relationships

a. The clan
b. Family hierarchy
c. Family education
d. Marriage traditions
e. Ancestral respect

2. Important Chinese Traditional Festivals and Holidays

a. New Year's Festival
b. Ch'ing Ming or the Spring Festival
c. Mid-Autumn Festival
d. Dragon Boat Festival

F. Contributions to World Civilization

1. Philosophy - Confucianism, Taoism, Legalism, Buddhism

2. Chinese Inventions and Contributions

Silk
Printing
Compass
Gunpowder
Chinaware
Paper
Paper money
Lacquer
Abacus
Kites
Chaulmoogra oil for leprosy
Civil service examinations
Dominoes
Rockets
Fireworks
Grenades
Tea drinking
Ice cream
Acupuncture
Coal for fuel

III. Contemporary Political, Economic and Cultural Life

A. Political Organization

1. Founding of People's Republic of China - October 1, 1949

2. Constitution of 1954

3. Provinces and autonomous regions

B. Economy

1. Agriculture as the base of China's economy
2. Rapid industrialization - Five Year Plans; the Great Leap Forward of 1958; use of the Commune system
3. Increasing trade with foreign countries

C. Social Structure

1. Change in the structure and role of the family
2. Status of women
3. The worker in China today

D. The Arts

1. The effect of the Cultural Revolution on the arts
2. Peking-style operas

   The Red Lantern

   Taking Tiger Mountain by Strategy

   Raid on the White Tiger Regiment

   On the Docks

3. Ballet

   Red Detachment of Women

   White-Haired Girl

4. Music

   Symphony: Shachiaping
   Piano Concerto: Yellow River
   Popular Songs: "The East is Red," "Sailing the Seas Depends on the Helmsman," "Making Revolution Depends on Mao Tse-tung's Thought"
   Sculpture: "Rent Collection Courtyard"

E. Education

1. Philosophy
2. Primary and middle schools

3. Higher education

4. Education in the world of work

F. Importance of the People's Republic of China in the World Today

1. World Power - one of the Big Three

2. Permanent member of the United Nations

3. The only Asian nuclear power

4. Source of raw materials

5. World's largest population - greatest potential for consumption and production of goods

CONTENT AND SCOPE, LEVEL II

GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURES

The following outline of grammar topics for Level II is predicated on the assumption that all topics and skills included in GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURES, LEVEL I, have been covered and tested for mastery. A thoroughgoing and well-planned review of Level I is essential as a foundation for further learning.

Level II: First Half

1. Measures (Classifiers, Numeratives)
    a. "dwo" (朵) for flowers and pendants
    b. "ke" (棵) for trees and plants
    c. "lyang" (輛) for vehicles
    d. "gen" (根) for grass and bamboo
    e. "dzwo" (座) for buildings
    f. "yikwar" (一塊兒) for dollars
2. Verbs
    a. Use of co-verbs "li" (離) and "tsung" (從) to compare distances

       Rben li Junggwo hen jin. 日本離中國很近

       Wo tsung Meigwo lai. 我從美國來

    b. Use of the construction "li...ywan" (離 遠) to convey distance

       Wode jya li jer hen ywan. 我的家離這兒很遠

    c. Use of the co-verbs of motion "tsung...dau" (從…到) construction to compare distance

       Wo tsung Junggwo dau Meigwo lai. 我從中國到美國來

    d. Use of co-verbs "lai" (來) and "chyu" (去) to show motion and direction

       Wo dau Meigwo chyu. 我到美國去

       Ta tsung Junggwo lai. 他從中國來

e. Use of the co-verb of conveyance "dzwo" (坐).

Ta dzwo chwan lai. 他坐船來

f. Use of "chilai" (起來) as a postverb.

Kanchilai, Jungwen hen nan. 看起來，中文很難

g. Use of the optative verbs "yinggai" (應該) and "yingdang" (應當).

Women yinggai (yingdang) yunggung. 我們應該(應當)用功

h. Use of resultative verb compounds to indicate the potential.

Tingdejyan. 聽得見

Kandedau. 看得到

3. Use of adverb "dou" (都).

a. To express inclusiveness and exclusiveness

Shei dou ai ta. 誰都愛他

Shemma ren dou buyau. 什麽人都不要

b. To intensify exclusiveness

Wo yidyar dou budung. 我一點兒都不懂

c. Use of "yi" (一) as an adverb to mean "as soon as".

Wo yi hweijya, wo jyou chrfan. 我一回家，我就吃飯

4. Particles and Suffixes

a. Use of "je" (着) as a particle or suffix to indicate the progressive.

Sywesheng dzwoje ting. 學生坐着聽、

b. Use of "je" (着) as a co-verb to denote attainment of aim.

Wo jau je le. 我找着了

c. Use of "je" (着) as a main verb [pronounced jau (着)]

Jau lyang. Jau hwo. 着涼，着火

d. Use of "je" (着) after adjectives and adverbs for euphony

Hai dwoje ne. 還多着呢

e. Use of "dzai" (在) as a verb suffix

Ta ju dzai Nyuywe. 他住在紐約

f. Use of "dau" (到) as a verb suffix

Gwodu tsung Nanjing ban dau Beijing chyu.
國 都從南京 搬到北京 去

g. Use of "de" (得) to describe manner

Ta changde hen hau. 他唱得很好

h. Particles or suffixes indicating direction

Shang	上	Dzwo	左
Sya	下	You	右
wai	外	Li	裏
Jung	中	Nei	內
Chyan	前	Jungjyan	中間
hau	好	Myan	面

i. Use of the particle "yi" (以) to express time or place

yishang 以上

yihou 以後

Yiwai 以外

5. Use of the construction "chule...yiwai" (除了… 以外) to express exception, apart, besides

Chule chrfan yiwai, wo shemma dou busyihwan.
除了吃飯以外，我什麼都不喜歡

6. Expression of equality by the use of:

   a. "yiyang" 一樣

      Wode byau gen nide byau yiyang hau.
      我的表跟你的表一樣好

   b. "Yibar" 一般兒

      Wode haidz gen nide haidz yibar dwo.
      我的孩子跟你的孩子一般兒多

   c. "Ye...nemma" 也…那麽

      Wo ye you ni nemma dwo chyan.
      我也有你那麽多錢

7. Superlatives

   a. To indicate superlative by use of "ding" (頂) and Dzwei" (最).

      Jeige difang ding hau. 這個地方頂好

      Nage ren dzwei hau. 那個人最好

   b. By designating a group or individual.

      Jeisye ren jung, haishr ta yunggung. 這些人中，還是他用功。

8. Passive Indicators

   a. Use of "shou" (受).

      Ta buhwei shou hai. 他不會受害

   b. Use of "bei" (被).

      Wo bei ta pyanle. 我被他騙了

   c. Use of "jyau" (叫).

      Ta jyau ren dale. 他叫人打了

   d. Use of "rang" (讓).

      Ta rang wo dzou syan. 他讓我走先

   e. Use of "gei" (給).

      Wode byau gei ta dyou le. 我的表給他丟了

9. To express parallel or simultaneous actions.

   a. Use of "yilu" (一路).

      Ta yilu dzou, yilu kan shanshwei. 他一路走，一路看山水

   b. Use of "yibyar" (一邊兒).

      Ta yibyar chang, yibyar dzwo. 他一邊兒唱，一邊兒作。

Level II: Second Half

1. Review of the most common measures (classifiers, numeratives).

a.	jang	張	feng	封	li	粒	tau	套
b.	jye	家	fu	幅	lyang	輛	tyau	條
c.	jya	架	sya	下	myan	面	ding	頂
d.	jyan	間	ge	個	pai	排	tseng	層
e.	jyan	件	ke	棵	ben	本	dzwo	座
f.	jr	枝	ke	顆	bi	筆	dwei	對
g.	jr	隻	hwei	回	pi	匹	dwun	頓
h.	jung	種	gen	根	pyan	片	wei	位
i.	jyu	句	kwai	塊	ba	把		
j.	fen	份	gwan	管	shwang	雙		

2. Verbs

   a. Use of compound verbs composed of verb and "wan" (完).

      Dzwowan 做完 Chrwan 吃完 Kanwan 看完

   b. Repetition of a verb (or verb phrase) to indicate concessive construction with the use of "shr" (是).

      Ta lai shr lai, keshr wo buyaujin.
      他來是來，可是我不要緊

   c. Reduplication of stative verbs to show manner.

      Hauharde 好好兒的

      Man marde 慢慢兒的

d. Use of stative verbs adverbially.

Wo lau ai chr tang. 我老愛吃糖

e. The use of "jeng" (正) before verbs to indicate the progressive.

Wo jeng nyanshu ne. 我正念書呢

Wo jengdzai nyanshu ne. 我正在念書呢

f. Indicating the subjunctive by use of "keyi" (可是), "yaushr" (要是), "kungpa" (恐怕), and "yesyu" (也許).

Wo mingnyan keyi biye. 我明年可以畢業

Mingtyan yesyu syayu. 明天也許下雨

3. To indicate the passive.

a. With the "shr...de" (是…的) construction.

Jeishr ta syede. 這是他寫的

b. By transforming Subject-Verb-Object pattern to Object-shr Subject-Verb pattern. (Indefinite Active to Definite Passive.)

Wo mai shu. 我買書

Shu shr wo maide. 書是我買的

4. Use of the compound connective to show paralled states or actions.

a. By the "you...you..." (又…又) construction.

Nage che you kwai you haukan. 那個車又快又好看

b. By the "ye...ye..." (也…也…) construction.

Ta ye neng shwo ye neng sye. 他也能說也能寫。

5. Special conjunctive functions.

a. To express "although" or "but" sentences.

Ta jaulai jauchyu ye mei jaudau. 他找來找去也沒找到

b. The use of the "budan...erchye" (不但…而且) construction.

Ta budan you chyan, erchye hen youming. 他不但有錢，而且很有名

c. The use of the adverbs "yi" (以) and "jyou" (就) together to show relative connection

Ta yishang che jyou chr dungsyi le. 他一上車就吃東西了

6. Ways of emphasis

a. By transposing the object before the verb or the subject

Junggwo syaushwo wo kangwo bushau. 中國小說我看過不少

b. By the use of a rhetorical question

Ta bushr dzai jya ma? 他不是在家嗎

c. By the use of the double negative

Jer meiyou yige ren buyunggung. 這兒沒有一個人不用功

d. By the use of the numeral "yi" (一)

Jer yige ren ye meiyou le. 這兒一個人也沒有了

e. By the use of "jyou" (就)

Dzwei gaude ren jyou shr ta. 最高的人就是他

f. By the use of the construction "lyan...dou(ye)..." (連⋯都(也))

Ta lyan shu dou meiyou kan. 他連書都沒有看

g. By the use of the "jryau...jyou" (只要⋯就) construction

Ni jryau yunggung, jyou keyi chenggung.
你只要用功，就可以成功

7. Comparisons

a. The use of the structure "gen...yiyang" (跟⋯一樣)

Ta yungde shu gen nide yiyang. 他用的書跟你的一樣

b. The use of the structure "syang...yiyang" (像…一樣).

Jintyan hen leng, syang dungtyan yiyang.
今天很冷，像冬天一樣

c. The use of the construction "ywe...ywe..." (越…越).

Ywe da ywe gwei. 越大越貴

8. Use of the construction "yinwei...swoyi..." (因為…所以…) to express cause and effect.

Jintyan yinwei tai leng, swoyi wo buchyu.
今天因為太冷所以我不去

9. Use of the construction "bujr...ye..." (不只…也…).

Jintyan bujr syasywe, ye syayu. 今天不只下雪，也下雨

10. The use of the construction "syan...dzai..." (先…再…) to lay stress on the order of two actions.

Women syan shwohwa dzai lyansyi syedz.
我們先說話再練習寫字

11. Numerals

a. Percentages

b. Multiple numbers

12. Question words

a. As indefinites

Wo you jiben shu. 我有幾本書

b. Repetition

Mai shemma jyou mai shemma. 買什麼就買什麼

13. Distinctions between similar words

a. Between "you" (又) and "dzai" (再).

b. Between "jyou" (舊) and "lau" (老).

c. Between "shwang" (雙) and "dwei" (對).

d. Between "haishr" (還是) and "buru" (不如).

e. Between "hwoje" (或者) and "hwoshr" (或是).

f. Between "de" (得) and "dei" (得).

TOPICAL VOCABULARY LISTS, LEVEL II

These topical vocabulary lists represent the minimum vocabulary to be learned in Chinese, Level II. They are grouped around specific topics to facilitate conversation and composition. They do not include idiomatic expressions.

1. SCHOOL

gungli sywesyau 公立學校
szli sywesyau 私立學校
yesywe 夜學
jyauyu 教育
youjrywan 幼稚園
chujung 初中
gaujung 高中
jyauwu juren 教務主任

lingdau jyauren 領導教員
lingdau daushr 領導導師
banjuren 班主任
tweisywe 退學
kaichu 開除
sywechi 學期
jyachi 假期
shujya 暑假

gungkebyau 功課表
tiyuchang 體育場
yundungchang 運動場
tsauchang 操場
youyungchrtsz 游泳池子
fushweichrtsz 浮水池子
wenping 文憑

2. CLASSROOM

shujwodz 書桌子
yifugwei 衣服櫃
dzjr 字紙
dzjrloudz 字紙簍子
hwaer 畫兒
dzdyan 字典
toukau 投考

syaukau 小考
jungkau 中考
dakau 大考
banjang 班長
bisai 比賽
jyangyan 講演
yanshwo 演說

biye 畢業
biyesheng 畢業生
biyeli 畢業禮
sywesheng kechengbyau 學生課程表
nyansyachyu 念下去
jisyu 繼續

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

3. FAMILY

shufu	叔父	jyefu	姐夫	laulau	姥姥
shushu	叔叔	meifu	妹夫	yimu	姨母
bwobwo	伯伯	gufu	姑父	yi	姨
bwofu	伯父	sao	嫂	yifu	姨父
shenmu	嬸母	jrdz	姪子	chyoufu	舅父
shenshen	嬸嬸	jrnyu	姪女	chyoumu	舅母
gumu	姑母	waidzufu	外祖父	swundz	孫子
gugu	姑姑	lauye	老爺	ernyu	兒女
bwomu	伯母	waidzumu	外祖母		

4. HEALTH

chenbing	診病	lyousying	流行	mafengbing	麻瘋病
yiwushr	醫務室	mayau	麻藥	majen	痲疹
yufang	預防	dansyin	擔心	feirebing	肺熱病
bingren	病人	kaidau	開刀	hwaiyun	懷孕
neikeyisheng	內科醫生	weibing	胃病	fengshrbing	風濕病
waikeyisheng	外科醫生	weikou	胃口	tyanhwa	天花
yaufang	藥房	ganmau	感冒	houlungtung	喉嚨痛
fangdz	方子	chingjya	請假	feibing	肺病
kaifangdz	開方子	kesou	咳嗽	Ashrbilin	阿士疋林
yansywe	驗血	tang	躺	yuganyou	魚肝油
husyi	呼吸	jauji	着急	dyanjyou	碘酒
chwanran	傳染	yung	癰	hungsesu	紅色素
chwanranbing	傳染病	hwolwan	霍亂	syaudu	消毒
shenjingbing	神經病	syeyau	瀉藥		

5. OCCUPATION

chudz	廚子
dashrfu	大師傅
feisyingjya	飛行家
hwajya	畫家
hwasywejya	化學家
jausyangjya	照相家
judzwojya	著作家
kesywejya	科學家
lifajyang	理髮匠
mujyang	木匠
shenfu	神父
syejyang	鞋匠
syinwenjije	新聞記者
tsaifeng	裁縫
waijyaujya	外交家
yinywejya	音樂家
yishujya	藝術家

6. PARTS OF THE BODY

bei	背
bwodz	脖子
damujr	大拇子
dzwei	嘴
dzweibadz	嘴巴子
dzweichwun	嘴唇
yau	腰
gebei	胳臂
gebeijou	胳臂肘
houlung	喉嚨
hudz	鬍子
meimau	眉毛
pifu	皮膚
yanlei	眼淚
shetou	舌頭
shoujr	手指
shouwandz	手腕子
syungkou	胸口
tudz	肚子

7. CLOTHING

byanfu	便服
fanbusye	帆布鞋
fushweiyi	浮水衣
hanshan	汗衫
jaisyalai	摘下來
jrfu	制服
lifu	禮服
neiyi	內衣
tsaumau	草帽
twosye	拖鞋
shoujin	手巾
syidzauyi	洗澡衣
sywedz	靴子
wadz	襪子
weibwoer	圍脖兒
weijin	圍巾
weichyun	圍裙
yumau	雨帽
yuyi	雨衣

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

8. BUSINESS

yinhang	銀行
jrpyau	支票
tswun	存
tswunkwan	存欵
syanchyan	現錢
kwaiji	會計
hangshr	行市
chyandz	簽字
chyanming	簽名
hwei	匯
hweipyau	匯票
pyaudz	票子
Meijin	美金
Meichau	美鈔
bagung	罷工
shangban	上班
syaban	下班
lyusying jrpyau	旅行支票
gungsz	公司
bausyan	保險
gungshrfang	公事房
shanglyang	商量
dajya	打價
jrchu	支出
banbudau	辦不到
banshr	辦事
gwanli	管理
lisyi	利息
dzben	資本
shuji	書記
jwan	賺

9. WEATHER

dafeng	大風
dijen	地震
wu	霧
shwang	霜
baudz	雹子
dashan	打閃
shandyan	閃电
syingsying	星星
chihou	氣候
dalei	打雷
rtou	日頭

10. SOCIAL RELATIONS

jaudai	招待
wenhou	問候
shaujyan	少見
jyouwei	久違
bitsz	彼此
weilingjyau	未領教
fushang dzai nar	府上在那兒
ywanji dzai nar	原籍在那兒
wakuren	挖苦人
swanleba	算了吧
hweitoujyan	回頭見
yingchou	應酬
chingbyan	請便
shrying	失迎
busung	不送

11. FOOD

yedz	椰子
lijr	梨子
hwasheng	花生
syangjyau	香蕉
pinggwo	蘋果
manggwo	芒果
tau	桃
li	梨
lidz	梨子
tyangwo	甜瓜
yingtau	櫻桃
putau	葡萄
yudz	柚子
ningmεng	檸檬
migan	蜜柑
baitsai	白菜
yumi	玉米

12. THE CITY

renliche	人力車
sanlunche	三輪車
dweihweidyan	對匯店
mache	馬車
yangche	洋車
yunshuche	運輸車
hwochwan	貨船
jyauwai	郊外
Bali	巴黎
Bwolin	柏林
Hwashengdwun	華盛頓
Lwoma	羅馬
Lwundwun	倫敦
jyauer	角兒
peng	碰
chushr	出事
kwaiwaner	拐彎兒
gunglu	公路
Shanghai	上海
Moszke	莫斯科
syinshang	欣賞
fangbyan	方便
renau	熱鬧
tingche	停車
tingchechang	停車場
kaiche	開車
jinggwo	經過
dzang	髒
ganjing	乾淨
fujin	附近

13. BUILDINGS AND MATERIALS

jujai	住宅
syishr	西式
jungshr	中式
chyang	牆
bwoli	玻璃
tai	台
tseng	層
penshweichr	噴水池
mwosying	模型
gaibyan	改變
gungcheng	工程
jingji	經濟
tsailyau	材料
gang	鋼
jyanju	建築
jyeshr	結實
tabulyau	塌不了

14. HOUSEHOLD OBJECTS

chweidz	錐子
chyu	鋸
dingdz	釘子
dingshang	釘上
ditan	地毯
dyanling	電鈴
jyandz	剪子
jyaushwei	膠水
loudz	簍子
lwoszganchwei	鏍絲趕錐
saujou	掃帚
shengdz	繩子
tidz	梯子
tsangying paidz	蒼蠅拍
tyeshang	貼上
you	油
youshwadz	油刷子

15. AMUSEMENTS

chywanshu	拳術
dalye	打獵
dzuchyou	足球
lanchyou	籃球
lyoubing	溜冰
mingsying	明星
pangchyou	棒球
tingsyi	聽戲
syidandz	戲單子
wutsaipyandz	五彩片子
paichyou	排球
pingpangchyou	乒乓球
saimachang	賽馬場
wangchyou	網球
yauchwan	搖船

16. ANIMALS, FISH, BIRDS, AND INSECTS

ying	鷹
shayu	鯊魚
jingyu	鯨魚
mayi	螞蟻
changchung	長虫
she	蛇
gwei	龜
houer	猴兒
lwotwo	駱駝
machywe	麻雀
hama	蝦蟆
tyanji	田雞
hudyer	蝴蝶兒
youjadouer	油炸豆兒
chyuchyu	蛐蛐
chouchung	臭虫
huli	狐狸
shrdz	虱子

17. TOPOGRAPHICAL FEATURES AND NAMES

shamwo	沙漠
dichyou	地球
dau	島
hu	湖
haian	海岸
Meijou	美洲
Yajou	亜洲
Feijou	菲洲
Aujou	澳洲
Oujou	歐洲
shanling	山嶺
jou	洲
bandau	半島
heywan	河源
Hwanghe	黄河

pingywan	平原
shanbwo	山坡
Changjyang	長江

18. GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

gungmin	公民
jengfu	政府
minjujuyi	民主主義
gungchanjuyi	共產主義
digwojuyi	帝國主義
dangpai	黨派
gwomindang	國民黨
minjudang	民主黨
gunghedang	共和黨
geming	革命
gwohwei	國會
hwangdi	皇帝
dzungtung	總統
falyu	法律
shrjang	市長
shrjengfu	市政府
joujang	州長
jusyi	主席
jungyangjengfu	中央政府

19. MILITARY

lujyun	陸軍
haijyun	海軍
kungjyun	空軍
jyangjyun	將軍
jyeji	階級
bing	兵
jyundwei	軍隊
dajang	打仗
janjeng	戰爭
gungji	攻擊
fangung	反攻
sywanjan	宣戰
dashengle	打勝了
dabaile	打敗了
shengli	勝利
shrbai	失敗
diren	敵人
chyansyan	前線
dasz	打死
chyang	槍
ja	炸
jadan	炸彈

20. RELIGIONS

dzungjyau	宗教
Yesujyau	耶穌教
Jidujyau	基督教
Kungjyau	孔教
Fwojyau	佛教
Tyanjujyau	天主教
Hweihweijyau	回回教
Daujyau	道教
Youtaijyau	猶太教
Shengjing	聖經
Tyantang	天堂
diyu	地獄
Shangdi	上帝
chidau	祈禱
miau	廟
mushr	牧師
shenfu	神父

21. TRAVEL

chwanju	船主	hujau	護照	syingligwolyang	行李過量
dakaisyingli	打開行李	pensyeji	噴射機	toulou	偷漏
dashwei	打稅	shweishou	水手	yunche	暈車
haigwan	海關	soucha	搜查	yunchwan	暈船
haijyang	海港	syinglibyau	行李表		
haikou	海口	syinglifei	行李費		

22. SCHOOL SUBJECTS

dadz	打字	sanjyausywe	三角學	tyanwensywe	天文學
daishu	代數	shenweisywe	社會學	weijifensywe	微積分學
dijrsywe	地質學	sujifa	速記法	wensywe	文學
hwasywe	化學	swanpan	算盤	wulisywe	物理學
jihe	幾何	swanshu	算術		

23. PERSONAL ACCESSORIES

syidzau	洗澡	daupyan	刀片	jyejr	戒子
shoujin	手巾	toushwei	頭水	gwalyan	刮臉
toufa	頭髮	touyou	頭油	bausyandau	保險刀
shwadz	刷子	yidz	胰子	syitoushwei	洗頭水
jingdz	鏡子	yusan	雨傘	weichyun	圍裙
syangshwei	香水	yagau	牙膏	shoudyantung	手電筒
syangfen	香粉	yafen	牙粉	shouyinji	收音機

IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS

Level II: First Half

1.	Dzemma?	怎麼
2.	Dzemma yang?	怎麼樣 ?
3.	Yikwar	一塊兒
4.	Hwei tou jyan	回頭見
5.	Ganbushang	趕不上
6.	Jungtou	鐘頭
7.	Bugwo	不過
8.	Meiyou fadz	沒有法子
9.	Chushr	出事
10.	You kung meiyou?	有空沒有 ?
11.	Kungpaule yitsz	空跑了一次
12.	Tingshwo	聽說
13.	Shwobuding	說不定
14.	Gwo rdz	國日子
15.	Lau	老
16.	Dzemmadelyau ne?	怎麼的了呢 ?
17.	Syausyin	小心
18.	Yityan dauwan	一天到晚
19.	Buyaujin	不要緊
20.	Kaisyin	開心
21.	Syingle	行了
22.	Chengle	成了
23.	Haugwo	好過
24.	Bugwan	不管

25. Yisya	一下
26. Yihwei	一回
27. Daswan	打算
28. Yesyu	也許
29. Da jyau nide hen	打攪你的很
30. Dajya	大家
31. Swanleba	算了吧
32. Banbudau	辦不到
33. Banbulyau	辦不了
34. Wakuren	挖苦人
35. Nau yijyan	鬧意見
36. Ching ni ansyin	請你安心
37. Buyau gwanyan	不要掛念
38. Lau renjya	老人家
39. Yilu pingan	一路平安
40. Narde hwa	那兒的話
41. Jen kesyi	真可惜
42. Jye gwang	借光
43. Gungsyi	恭喜
44. Wanshr ruyi	萬事如意

Level II: Second Half

1.	Meiyou gwansyi	沒有關係
2.	Syaufei	小費
3.	Wu tsai pyandz	五彩片子
4.	Budelyau	不得了
5.	Bantyan	半天
6.	Ling swei	零碎
7.	Lingling sweiswei	零零碎碎
8.	Mangbugwolai	忙不過來
9.	Mashang	馬上
10.	Meiyou weikou	沒有胃口
11.	Tsunglai	從來
12.	Kesyaudehen!	可笑得很
13.	Na tai syauhwale	那太笑話了
14.	Wo you bing	我有病
15.	Binghaule	病好了
16.	Buhauyisz	不好意思
17.	Na dzemma hauyisz	那怎麼好意思
18.	Daumei	倒楣
19.	Maubing	毛病
20.	Tyanyidyer	添一點兒
21.	Shangfeng	傷風
22.	Dzemma ban ne	怎麼辦呢
23.	Ta hen jengjing	他很正經
24.	Butswo	不錯
25.	Bainyan	拜年

26. Youyisz 有意思

27. Wan leng deng 玩龍燈

28. Hau dzai... 好在...

29. Bifang 比方

30. Wansyau 玩笑

31. Dzwoyou 左右

32. Tingtyan youming 聽天由命

CLASSROOM EXPRESSIONS, LEVEL II

1. You shemma wenti? 有什麼問題?

2. Haiyou wenti ma? 還有問題嗎?

3. Ni tingdejyan ma? 你聽得見嗎?

4. Ching ni sye dzai heibanshang. 請你寫在黑板上

5. Ching ni hweida wode wenti. 請你回答我的問題

6. Ching ni tsa heiban. 請你擦黑板

7. Syandzai ting luyinji ba. 現在聽錄音機吧

8. Ching kan touyidwan. 請看頭一段

9. Ching kan dzweihouyidwan. 請看最後一段

10. Buyau dajyau ta. 不要打攪他

11. Syandzai nimen tingsye. 現在你們聽寫

12. Wo nyan yijyu, ni jyou yung Jungwen (Yingwen) sye yijyu.
我念一句，你就用中文（英文）寫一句

13. Dale shangke jungyihou, bye shwohwa. 打了上課鐘以後，別說話。

14. Ching nyan syachyu. 請念下去。

15. Ching ba Jungwen fanyi Yingwen. 請把中文繙譯英文

16. Women syandzai dzwo fayin lyansyi. 我們現在做發音練習

17. Ching kaishr nyan. 請開始念、

18. Ching ba gangbi fang syalai. 請把鋼筆放下來

19. Jeijyuhwa shr shemma yisz? 這句話是什麼意思、

20. Ching jyu yige li. 請舉一個例

21. Ching jushou buyau sweibyan hweida. 請舉手，不要隨便回答.

22. Ching ba men gwanshang. 請把門關上

23. Ching ba chwanghu kaikai. 請把窗户開開.

24. Ching ba nimen dzwoweide dzwoyou shoushr yidyar.
請把你們坐位的左右收拾一點兒

25. Ching nimen juyi. 請你們注意、

26. Women mingtyan kaushr. 我們明天考試

PROVERBS, LEVEL II

1. Yi dau lyang dwan. 一刀兩斷

2. Yi mau bu ba. 一毛不拔

3. Yi bu dzwo, er bu syou. 一不做，二不休

4. Yi mu lyau ran. 一目了然

5. Yi shr dzu cheng chyan gu hen. 一失足成千古恨

6. Yi jr ban jye. 一知半解

7. Yi jyan shwang dyau. 一箭雙鵰

8. Yi lwo chyan jang. 一落千丈

9. Ren shan ren hai. 人山人海

10. Ren myan shou syin. 人面獸心

11. San sz er sying. 三思而行

12. Syau ti da dzwo. 小題大做

13. Kou shr syin fei. 口是心非

14. Kou mi fu jyan. 口蜜腹劍

15. Tyan sya wei gung. 天下為公

16. Mu yi cheng jou. 木已成舟

17. Nyou tou bu dwei ma dzwei. 牛頭不对馬嘴

18. Ban tu er fei. 半途而廢

19. Sz hai yi jya. 四海一家

20. Sz hai jr nei jye syingdi ye. 四海之內，皆兄弟也

21. Han ma gung lau. 汗馬功勞

22. You jr jing cheng. 有志竟成

23. Tung jou gung ji. 同舟共濟

24. Tung ping syang lyan. 同病相憐

25. Dzwo jing gwan tyan. 坐井觀天

ALPHABETICAL CHECKLIST, LEVEL II VOCABULARY

As stated at the beginning of the alphabetical vocabulary list for Level I, this list represents the minimum vocabulary to be learned in Chinese, Level II.

This alphabetical vocabulary provides a checklist for the teacher in selecting words for mastery from the textbooks used by the class, and in selecting words for uniform or city-wide examinations.

an	岸
anjing	安靜
bang	幫
banli	辦理
bangju	幫助
banye	半夜
bau	報
baugau	報告
bi	比
bifang	比方
bijyau	比較
bingchye	并且
bisyu	必須
biye	畢業
bu	不
buru	不如
busye	不謝
bwoli	玻璃
byanjye	邊界
chejan	車站
cheng	成
chengshr	成事
chengyu	成語
chenshan	襯衫
chinchi	親戚
chingnyan	青年
chingsying	情形
chiyou	汽油
chr	吃
chu	出
chuchan	出產
chukou	出口
chule...yiwai	出了...意外
chwang	床
chwuntyan	春天
chyan	淺
chyang	牆
chyoutyan	秋天
chyu	曲
chyung	窮
dabai	打敗
dabyan	大便
dagai	大概
dai	帶、戴
dajen	打針
dajya	大家
dajya	打架
dalitang	大禮堂
dalu	大陸
dandz	單子
dapai	打牌
Dasyiyang	大西洋
dauchu	到處
dauli	道理
deng	燈
di	低
dili	地理
ditu	地圖
dung	東
ditan	地氈
diwei	地位

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dwo	朵
dyanbau	電報
dyanti	電梯
dyanying	電影
dzaufang	澡房
dzei	賊
dzwoyou	左右
dzu	租
dzuchyou	足球
dzufangdz	租房子
dzujr	阻止
dzusyan	祖先
dzung	總
dzwo	坐，做
erchye	而且
erdwo	耳朵
faming	發明
fandwei	反對
fandyan	飯店
fangfa	方法
fangjya	放假
fangsyang	方向
fanting	飯廳
fasheng	發生
fasyan	發現
fasyau	發燒
fei	費
feichyan	費錢
feiji	飛機
feijichang	飛機場
feishrhou	費時候
fenbye	分別
feng	封
fengjing	風景
fengsu	風俗
fenkai	分開
fu	副
fujin	附近
fushang	府上
ganjing	乾淨
gausying	高興
gechu	各處
gegwo	各國
geren	個人
gu	故
gung	恭
gung	共，工
gungchyan	工錢
gungfu	工夫
gunggungchiche	公共汽車
gunglu	公路
gungmin	公民
gungren	工人
gungsyi	恭喜
gungye	工業
gungywan	公園
gushr	故事
gwan	官
gwang	光
gwanggau	廣告
gwansyi	關係
gweiding	規定
gwojya	國家
gwomin	國民
haijyun	海軍
haikou	海口
hangkung	航空
hau	号
hauchu	好處
hebi	何必
heshr	合適
houlung	喉嚨
hudz	鬍子
huran	忽然

husyi	呼吸
hwai	壞
hwaichu	壞處
hwang	黃
hwanying	歡迎
hweida	回答
hwo	活
jausyang	照相
jen	真
jengfu	政府
ji	級、極
ji	記
jihwa	計劃
jihwei	機會
jin	金
jingcha	警察
jingchajyu	警察局
jinggau	警告
jingji	經濟
jingli	經理
jinji	緊急
jiran	既然
jrdu	制度
jrhau	只好
jrye	職業
ju	主，住
jung	種
jung	鐘
jungtou	鐘頭
jungwu	中午
jungyau	重要
juren	主人
juyi	注意
jyajyu	傢俱
jyandan	簡單
jyanghwa	講話
jyanglai	將來
jyangshu	講書
jyansheng	減省
jyating	家庭
jyau	較、角、腳
jyautang	教堂
jyautung	交通
jyauyu	教育
jye	結、接
jye	街、解
jyefang	解放。
jyegwo	結果
jyehwan	結婚
jyeshau	介紹
jyeshr	結實
jyoushr	舊式
jyushou	舉手
jyushwo	據說
jyweding	覺定
kaifangdz	開方子
kaihwei	開會
kaisywe	開學
kanhu	看護
ke	科
kelyan	可憐
kesou	咳嗽
kesyi	可惜
keting	客廳
kesywe	科學
kou	口
ku	苦
kung	空
kwaiji	會計
kwaile	快樂
la	拉
laihweipyau	來回票
lan	懶
lanchyou	籃球
lei	累
leng	冷
li	力、立、離
lifa	理髮

lihai	利害
lihwun	離婚
like	立刻
lingswei	零碎
lingwai	另外
lishr	歷史
liwai	例外
lou	樓
louti	樓梯
lu	路
lujyun	陸軍
lyan	連
lyangkwai	涼快
Lyanhegwo	聯合國
lyansyi	練習
lyou	留
lyousywe	留學
lyugwan	旅館
lyuke	旅客
lyusying	旅行
ma	馬
ma	罵
mai	麥
malu	馬路
man	滿
mashang	馬上
matou	碼頭
mau	毛
maubing	毛病
maudz	帽子
maujin	毛巾
Meijin	美金
mi	米
mimi	秘密
minju	民主
minjugwojya	民主國家
mwo	墨
mwoshwei	墨水
nanshou	難受
nau	鬧
neike yisheng	內科醫生
neiyi	內衣
nungye	農業
nwan	暖
nyanching	年青
nyau	鳥
pai	派
paichyou	排球
pibau	皮包
pifu	皮膚
pwo	婆、破
rang	讓
redu	熱度
renau	熱鬧
renkou	人口
renmin	人民
rou	肉
ru	入，如
shangfeng	傷風
shanglou	上樓
shanglyang	商量
shehweisywe	社會學
shen	神
shen	深
sheng	省
shengchi	生氣
shengdan	聖誕
shengyin	聲音
shengwusywe	生物學
shehwei	生活
shetou	舌頭
shou	收
shou	守

shou	受
shoufa	受罰
shoujin	手巾
shoujr	手指
shoushr	收拾
shoutau	手套
shoutyau	收條
shr	事、試
shrching	事情
shrdzai	實在
shrjang	市長
shrjengfu	市政府
shrjyan	時間
shrjye	世界
shrtou	石頭
shrwang	失望
shu	數
shufu	舒服
suhwa	俗話
Sulyan	蘇聯
swanleba	算了吧
swansywe	算學
sweiran	雖然
syalou	下樓
syangdz	箱子
syangdang	相當
syangsya	鄉下
syangsyin	相信
syasywe	下雪
syatyan	夏天
syaubyan	小便
syausyi	消息
syausyin	小心
syayu	下雨
syidzau	洗澡
syigwan	習慣
syinfeng	信封
syingli	行李
syinshr	新式
syingsying	星星
syinsyang	信箱
syinwen	新聞
syishr	西式
syousyi	休息
sywe	血
sz	私
sz	死
Taipingyang	太平洋
taiyang	太陽
tebye	特別
ti	體
ti	替
timu	題目
ting	停、庭
tingshwo	聽說
tingsyi	聽戲
tiyugwan	體育館
tou	偷
toudeng	頭等
toufa	頭髮
tounau	頭腦
toutoude	偷偷的
tsangwan	參觀
tsanjya	參加
tsankaushu	參考書
tsau	草
tseng	層
tung	痛
tungching	同情
tungshr	同事
tungsywe	同學
tungyi	同意
tushugwan	圖書館
twei	推、退
tyan	田、添
tyauwu	跳舞
tyelu	鐵路

wadz	襪子
waike yisheng	外科醫生
wan	完
wanchywan	完全
wang	往、忘
wangchyou	網球
wangu	頑固
wansyau	玩笑
wei	味,胃
weidau	味道
weikou	胃口
weisyan	危險
wendu	溫度
wendubyau	溫度表
wenhwa	文化
wenti	問題
wenyan	文言
wer	味兒
wofang	臥房
wu	物
wuli	物理
wulwun	無論
wusyandyan	無線電
ya	牙
yagau	牙膏
yan	烟
yan	嚴
yang	養
yanjyou	研究
yanse	顏色
yau	藥
yaufang	藥房
yaujin	要緊
yaushr	要是
yichye	一切
yidz	胰子
yijing	已經
yinhang	銀行
yinywe	音樂
yisheng	醫生
yishu	藝術
yiwei	以為
yiywan	醫院
you	遊,友
youchai	郵差
youchyu	有趣
youjengjyu	郵政局
youpyau	郵票
yun	雲
yunchi	運氣
yundung	運動
yunhe	運河
yunshu	運輸
yusyan	預先
ywangu	緣故
ywanyi	願意
ywehwei	約會

CHARACTER LEARNING, LEVEL II

1. Recognition of 500 (900) morphemes and 600 vocabulary items
2. Mastery of 350 (550) characters

CULTURE TOPICS, LEVEL II

Although the topics which follow are listed as part of the Level II course of study, there is no distinct dividing line between the material to be covered in the first and second levels. Cultural material should be dealt with, as far as possible, spontaneously and with student involvement. Current events, holidays, anniversaries, and allusions in textbooks should be used for the spontaneous presentation of new material. For greater impact, maximum use of films, filmstrips, and pictorial illustrations are suggested. Greater pupil involvement can be achieved through student committees, reports, projects, publications, correspondence, and trips.

A. Chinese Writing

   1. Evolution
   2. Styles of script and variant forms
   3. Components of characters
   4. Use of a Chinese dictionary and its relation to character components

B. Social Classes in China (Traditional)

   1. Gentry
   2. Peasantry
   3. Social Scale
      a. Scholars
      b. Farmers
      c. Artisans
      d. Merchants
      e. Soldiers
      f. Actors
   4. Mobility between classes - Chinese civil service examinations

C. Chinese Ideology

   1. Confucianism
   2. Taoism

3. Legalism

4. Buddhism

D. Chinese Art

1. Painting and Calligraphy

a. Ku K'ai-chih
b. Wu tao-tzu
c. Wang wei
d. Mi fei
e. Kuo hsi

2. Sculpture

a. Tun huang caves, Kansu
b. Ta t'ung, Shansi

E. Literature

1. Poetry

a. Li Po
b. Tu Fu
c. Po Chu-i
d. Su shih

2. Important novels

a. Romance of the *Three Kingdoms* (*San Kuo Chih Yen I*)
b. Record of a *Journey to the West* also known as *Monkey* (*Hsi Yu Chi*)
c. *All Men Are Brothers*
d. *Dream of the Red Chamber*

F. Historical Writing

1. Liu Chih-chi -- *Shih t'ung*

2. Ssu ma-kuang -- *Tzu chih t'ung chien*

3. Chu hsi -- *T'ung chien kang mu*

G. Education

1. Traditional

2. Prior to 1949

3. Under People's Republic of China

TEXTBOOKS

SOME CRITERIA FOR SELECTION

An important function of teachers and supervisors is to evaluate textbooks and teaching materials in order to select the best. Evaluation is a complex and time consuming process. In view of this, some criteria to guide those concerned with the selection of textbooks are listed below: *

General Criteria

1. PRACTICALITY. The textbook or integrated program should not be overloaded with an unwieldy array of auxiliary aids and equipment.

2. ADAPTABILITY. Teachers should be able, when necessary, to depart from the sequence of topics in the textbook, to adapt or to add exercises and, in general, to make selective use of its contents to conform with local objectives, pupil ability, and curriculum requirements.

3. CONTINUITY AND PROGRESSION. In a textbook series, there should be continuity of subject matter and progression in difficulty from one volume to the next.

4. GRADE SUITABILITY. The textbook should be keyed to the interests and learning capacities of the pupils who are to learn from it, e.g., the Level I textbook which claims to be suitable for both secondary and college students should be regarded with caution.

Checklist of Positive Criteria

In addition to the general criteria, a more complete checklist of criteria should serve as a summary and as detailed reference for different types of textbooks. No single textbook is expected to meet all the criteria. The additional details given in this checklist will permit more refined distinctions to be made in the event that several textbooks, all of which meet the basic criteria, are being considered for adoption.

1. Textual matter in Chinese should be of intrinsic interest to students in the grades in which the textbook is used.

2. The Chinese used in the book should be authentic.

3. Dialogue situations should be natural, functional, and suited to the age-level and maturity of the students.

4. Textbooks at all levels, including the basic textbook, should incorporate cultural content from the very beginning.

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* The Selective List of Materials (SLOM), published by the Modern Language Association (N.Y. 1962) under contract with the U.S. Office of Education, includes a section entitled, "Criteria for the Evaluation of Materials," from which are drawn some of the suggestions given in this discussion.

5. The first level textbook should allow for a flexible prereading phase of instruction that can be adjusted to the grade and the maturity of the pupils.

6. The subject matter to be learned should be organized to fit into the schedule of average class periods and school terms.

7. The textbook should be designed for classes of average size.

8. The textbook should develop the four language skills in the recommended sequence of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

9. Auditory comprehension and oral production should be given major emphasis in the first level textbook.

10. Grammatical structures should be presented inductively, i.e., explanations and generalizations of structure should come after students have learned a sufficient number of examples to make their own generalizations under teacher guidance.

11. Structures, vocabulary, and idioms in the first level textbook should be of high frequency in the spoken language.

12. Pattern drills should be varied and should include substitutions and transformations in addition to repetitions.

13. Drills should be organized on the minimum increment principle, i.e., with a single emphasis on a new construction or vocabulary item before two or more items are drilled in one exercise.

14. Dialogues should include statements and rejoinders as well as questions and answers.

15. Structures and vocabulary should be reintroduced periodically and there should be review lessons at regular intervals to insure retention and fluency.

16. Translation exercises from English into Chinese should not be overloaded with lexical and syntactical problems. Instead of straight translation exercises, guided composition or situational recall exercises, in which cues are provided in meaningful sentence sequences, either in English or in Chinese, are recommended.

Negative Criteria

Objectionable features of textbooks and integrated programs are listed as a caution to inexperienced evaluators. The occurrence of one or two objectionable features in a textbook need not automatically result in its rejection. However, the frequent occurrence of several such features may be considered sufficient grounds for questioning the suitability of the textbook.

1. The method of instruction is so rigidly prescribed as to inhibit teacher initiative and creativity.

2. The space taken by printed directions on how to use the book exceeds the space allotted to subject matter.

3. The book contains an over-elaborate scheme of eccentric typographical devices, confusing color codes, and complex diagrams.

4. Only one or two types of exercises occur with monotonous regularity throughout the book.

5. The book contains non-functional exercises, i.e., those not conducive to the development of communication skills. Some examples of non-functional exercises are:

    a. GRAMMAR CATECHISM. Questions in English about grammar or grammatical terminology rather than drill in Chinese.

    b. MULTIPLE STAGE. Requiring two or more operations, each of which depends on the correctness of the preceding one.

    c. VERBAL CONTORTIONS. Requiring abstract dexterity in manipulating forms and structures in a manner never used in normal speech or writing.

    d. ERROR EXPOSURE. Requiring students to correct the errors in exercise sentences, thus exposing them to incorrect forms and structures.

    e. SCRAMBLED ENGLISH. English sentences to be translated into Chinese, are artificially constructed to elucidate the structure of Chinese sentences, resulting in unnatural English.

    f. ISOLATED SENTENCES. This type of non-functional exercise consists of translation or so-called "composition" passages without continuity of meaning but merely designed to exemplify the grammar topics of the lesson.

    g. MULTIPLE INCREMENT. This type of non-functional exercise comprises sentences to be translated from English into Chinese, each sentence consisting almost entirely of lexical, structural or idiomatic difficulties.

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES

Classification

In the widest sense of the word, all teaching materials outside of the textbook are considered audio-visual aids. Today, a vast amount of visual materials and electronic equipment is available. These may be grouped as follows:

I. Visual

  A. Flat materials: pictures, flash cards, maps, charts, cardboard figures

  B. Three-dimensional objects: puppets, dolls, models, coins, dioramas

  C. Projected materials: slides, transparencies, filmstrips, films, pictures, kinescopes, videotapes

II. Audial (including electronic equipment)

  A. Phonographs and discs

  B. Tape recorders and tapes

  C. Radios

  D. Language Laboratories (fixed or mobile)

III. Audial and Visual

  A. Sound film projectors

  B. Television receivers

General Considerations

Visual and audial aids in the classroom are used to simulate actual experiences involving foreign languages.

Pictures are simpler to use than audial materials since they do not depend on any mechanical device. Like charts, models, and drawings, they are displayed, discussed, or used as a basis for drill and conversation. Although all the senses are involved in the learning process, the visual impression is probably more lasting. However, since communication is usually via sound, the lasting impression is not due solely to the visual nor the audial, but to the combination of both.

Visual Aids

Classroom Decoration

The classroom is to be transformed into a "cultural isle." This is achieved by the almost exclusive use of Chinese and by the simulated Chinese environment supplied by classroom decorations.

Classroom decorations which should be bright, cheerful, and attractive, must also have pedagogic value. In choosing display material, the teacher should ask himself the following questions:

1. Is it esthetically pleasing?

2. Is it in good taste?

3. Is it timely?

4. Is it pedagogically useful?

The kinds of materials that may be put on display in the classroom fall into various categories. They may be large or small items; they may be permanent or temporary; they may consist of pictorial or lettered material; they may be purchased or homemade. Items contributed by students and examples of students' written work and projects are especially valuable in that they arouse interest, present high standards of achievement and promote pupil activity.

The larger displays include pictures and posters. A map of China is a sine qua non. Other materials are Chinese artifacts, flags, mottoes, proverbs, and charts. Students' work that is suitable for display include maps, models, scrapbooks, stamp and coin collections, costume drawings, menus, itineraries, and compositions or poems. Neat labels in Chinese identify the displays and expose the class to new vocabulary and sentences.

Although the displays may be situated at various places in the room, current material should be concentrated on the bulletin board of which there should be one or two in every Chinese classroom. If carefully planned and managed, the bulletin board becomes an effective device for motivating, teaching, and sustaining interest.

Among the other indispensable aids for certain types of lessons are the clock dial with movable hands, pronunciation charts, calendars, conversation pictures, and illustrated vocabulary, and structural drill charts.

The Chalkboard

The simplest, most immediate and most common visual aid is the chalkboard. Its advantages are:

1. It is always available.

2. It does not get out of order.

3. It is visible to the entire class.

4. New material can be presented immediately.

5. Written matter can be erased.

6. Both teacher and pupils can use the board.

To use the chalkboard most effectively:

1. Avoid overcrowding.
2. Maintain standards of clear, neat, and orderly writing.
3. Establish a definite daily routine.
4. Use colored chalk to stress particular words or items.
5. Give preference to the front board, reserving the side board for assignments and the rear board for dictation.
6. Correct all errors.
7. Erase undated and previous work.
8. Identify all work with a suitable heading.
9. Check on legibility and visibility (illumination).

Flat Materials

As they progress, pupils may also prepare their own 2 x 2 character flashcards with Chinese characters on one side and English equivalents on the other. A very useful device is the postercard, a sheet of oaktag or cardboard, about 18 x 6 inches, on which appears a character, a sentence, or a simple outline drawing. The character should be large, neat and clear so that it can be seen from the rear of the room. Printed characters are preferred. Postercards are especially useful for drilling or reviewing vocabulary, as well as for demonstrating various uses of Chinese words. For examples:

1. Verbs (reduplication, auxiliary verbs, co-verbs)
2. Adjectives (adverbial use, antonyms, synonyms, as verbs)
3. Nouns
4. Prepositions
5. Adverbs (Comparison)

6. Measures

7. Easily confused characters

8. Simplified or variant forms

Still Pictures

Pictures can be used very effectively for teaching the Chinese language as well as Chinese culture. Every foreign language department should maintain a file of suitable pictures. For their most effective use, attention must be paid to:

1. PREPARATION. Pupils should be told, preferably in Chinese, what to observe and what to remember.

2. PRESENTATION. The teacher should point out the important details, emphasize salient points, and elicit reactions.

3. APPLICATION. The information obtained from the picture should be applied. If the picture is used for linguistic aims, the new words and phrases should be used in original sentences, in dictation, and in short compositions. If it is a lesson in culture, a summary of the information from the pictures may be written on the board and copied into notebooks, and further reading and research may be assigned.

The Opaque Projector

One of the most effective ways of using a picture is to project it by using the opaque projector in a darkened room. This machine will project onto a wall or screen anything printed, painted, or drawn. It can also be used to project flat objects such as stamps, coins, and medals, as well as pictures and photographs.

The Overhead Projector

This device is specifically designed to project large transparencies. It can be used in any classroom, double unit, or auditorium. The teacher may write on the acetate sheet using a grease pencil (china marking pencil) or she may use prepared transparencies. The overhead projector may be used to teach stroke order of the character and to train students in the use of the Chinese writing brush when practicing calligraphy in class. The teacher may write directly with the Chinese calligraphy brush or a write-on film and the pupils are able to observe directly all the proper movements. A lightboard may also be used on the overhead projector when a teacher wishes to write and erase information during class instruction. The advantages of the overhead projector are:

1. It is simple to operate.

2. The teacher faces the class.

3. The attention of the whole class is directed to one area.

4. Material can be prepared in advance, developed as the lesson progresses, then erased, or saved for future use.

5. The room need not be darkened.

6. Many transparencies can be prepared quickly and inexpensively.

7. Various styles of Chinese calligraphy can be projected for comparison.

Some Uses of the Overhead Projector Are:

1. To project a simple scene and add new elements to it. (The class is asked to talk or write about the scene.)

2. To project a transparency of students' written work for class comment, discussion, and correction.

3. To project a graphic illustration to be followed by questions and answers and terminating with an oral composition.

4. To project a series of pictures to serve as a basis for oral or written narration.

5. To project materials for remedial work or reinforcement of previous learnings.

Slides

Slides are especially suitable for the teaching of culture. An effective and interesting procedure is to assign one or more students to prepare notes in Chinese for each slide. After these have been corrected, the students read their notes as an oral commentary to each slide as it is shown. Furthermore, slides may be accompanied by a recorded commentary. Some uses of the slide projector are:

1. To project a travelogue or an art sequence

2. To project slides to illustrate a recorded lecture

The Filmstrip

The filmstrip consists of a series of illustrations printed on 35mm film in black and white or color. The filmstrip may be accompanied by sound. A great variety of excellent filmstrips are now on the market, ranging from simple travelogues to complete courses in Chinese. To secure optimum use of the filmstrip, the following is suggested:

1. The teacher should preview the filmstrip.

2. The presentation should be motivated.

3. Spontaneous reaction and response should be encouraged beyond the limits of the given captions.

4. Guiding questions should be prepared in advance.

5. Oral and written activities should follow the showing.

In using films or filmstrips with accompanying tape or record to improve oral production and auditory comprehension, the following procedure is suggested:

1. Developing listening and speaking readiness
    a. Motivation
    b. Removal of difficulties
    c. Oral practice with new vocabulary and structures
2. Advance study of the script
    a. Silent reading of script
    b. Comprehension check
    c. Silent reading of script accompanied by sound track only
3. Presentation of the film
    a. First showing of film
    b. Oral testing of comprehension
    c. Second showing and further discussion, if time permits
4. Culminating activities
    a. Elimination of the sound track; student summaries of the story of the film
    b. Improvised dramatization of a brief scene from the film

The Tachistoscopic Projector

Tachistoscopic teaching uses a still projector equipped with a time attachment to flash words, phrases, pictures, forms or numbers. It is excellent for use in training the eye and memory for speed in recognition and comprehension of Chinese ideographs. Pupils learn to recognize and read characters more readily. Some uses of the tachistoscopic device are:

1. Provides the teacher with another ideograph testing technique.
2. Aids in remedial reading.
3. Improves the pupil's ability to recognize widely used characters and their combinations.

4. Rate of timing and procedures can be fitted to individual needs.

5. Provides constant motivation and increases attention span.

The Sound Motion Picture

The motion picture is one of the most effective of the mass media for entertainment and education, for discussion, and for instruction. Educationally, the advantages of a sound motion picture are:

1. With its rapid change and movement and its double impact of sight and sound, it holds the pupil's attention.
2. Motion, sound, and color heighten reality.
3. The foreign scene and the historic event are vividly portrayed.

To secure optimum effectiveness in using motion pictures for foreign foreign language instruction, the following should be observed.

1. The film must be chosen for its appropriateness in a given situation. The teacher should be acquainted with the available films so that he can make the best choice.
2. The best physical conditions should prevail for the showing.
3. The projector should be handled by a skilled operator.
4. The teacher should prepare the class by
    a. motivating the topic of the film
    b. pointing out what is to be looked for
    c. preparing questions to be answered by students
    d. planning follow-up activities and application

Television

Television, an extension and special adaptation of the motion picture, can be used effectively to supplement the foreign language program. Commercial television stations and WNDT Channel 13 sometimes present foreign language programs appropriate for their linguistic or cultural content.

The Board of Education's television channel, WNYE-TV Channel 25, offers programs to supplement foreign language instruction. Manuals, including schedules and teacher-guide materials, will be available in connection with specific programs.

As with all audio-visual aids, the value of the television presentation is in proportion to the advance preparation and followup.

Audial Materials and Techniques

Until recently, the hearing phase of language learning was not always adequately emphasized. The pupil was not always systematically exposed to the foreign tongue even in the classroom. Furthermore, hearing a language spoken every day does not in itself lead to accurate comprehension and correct speech. In addition to passive listening, which promotes some unconscious assimilation, the learner must be trained to listen critically for accurate comprehension.

Listening is a skill which can be developed by requiring the student to:

1. Listen repeatedly to the same recorded or spoken material
2. Read the accompanying text or script silently as he hears it spoken
3. Repeat the material that he hears
4. Answer oral questions based on the general content of what he has heard
5. Answer written questions based on the material heard
6. Give a brief oral or written summary (cued by the teacher, if necessary) of what he has heard

Following are some of the basic requirements for a good listening-comprehension exercise:

1. The atmosphere of the room should be quiet and conducive to listening. The listeners should not be too far removed from the voice source.
2. The spoken material should be suited to the age, interests, and grade level of the class.
3. The aim of the lesson should be clear to the entire class.
4. The class should be motivated and prepared.
5. After each reading or playing, the students should be encouraged to ask questions about anything they did not understand.

The Phonograph Record

Disc recordings may be used effectively in the following areas of foreign language teaching:

1. Music appreciation
2. Appreciation of vocal selections or readings

3. Teaching a song to the class
4. Drilling structures or vocabulary
5. Auditory comprehension exercises or tests
6. Dictation exercises or tests
7. The appreciation of literary selections in the foreign language
8. The appreciation of cultural background selections

The great advantage of the phonograph record is that it can be:

1. Stopped at any point for questions, comments, and discussion
2. "Spotted" and repeated any number of times
3. Played at any time
4. Pre-heard and evaluated
5. Obtained for almost any subject and in any language

Radio

The radio permits the student to hear the foreign language spoken by natives in life situations, and to enjoy vicariously the cultural atmosphere of the foreign country.

The New York City school system maintains station WNYE, from which educational programs are broadcast five days a week. These programs can be used to advantage in the schools by dubbing in a Chinese sound track or commentary.

Besides the WNYE programs, there are often interesting and important commercial programs which can be used effectively in connection with Chinese language lessons. The material should be within the vocabulary range of the students. The difficulty with these commercial programs is that they cannot be reviewed in advance. They can, however, be taped and then presented to the class with vocabulary and questions.

The Tape Recording

The tape recording is one of the most useful devices for practice in hearing the foreign language. In the past, students had to depend entirely on the teacher's pronunciation of Chinese. Now, any teacher may secure tapes and permit the class to hear a variety of native Chinese voices, including those of renowned actors and singers. A perfect model is thus available to every learner.

The values of the prerecorded tape are:

1. It extends the repetitive force of the teacher's voice beyond his own physical limitations.
2. A tape can be used all day. It does not tire and it does not vary in tone and pronunication.

3. Voices other than that of the teacher can be brought into the classroom.

4. The tape provides a permanent reference for the sounds and recorded speech of the Chinese language.

The technical advantages of the tape recordings are:

1. The recording may be permanent or it may be erased and the tape used again and again.

2. As a rule, a good tape recording has higher fidelity than a disc recording, and there is no record scratch.

3. Taped sequences can be catalogued and more easily identified than those on discs.

Listening to the taped recording is not enough. The important problem for the teacher is how to incorporate the tape techniques into the lesson. With a little ingenuity, the teacher can add the use of the tape recorder to his customary procedures. The materials, however, should be kept in definite and sequential relationship to the regular course of study. The most practical plan is to relate the taped recording to the content of the textbook. This offers little difficulty since most textbooks are now provided with accompanying tapes.

Speed is important in listening with understanding. Complate comprehension means grasping meaning at normal tempo. A large amount of spoken material, carefully graded in speed, is indicated.

In preparing tapes, the following basic principles should be considered:

1. The tape must contain precise directions so that the student knows exactly what he is to do.

2. Grammatical or linguistic explanations in English should be excluded from the tape. Chinese should be used almost exclusively.

3. Basic tapes should relate closely to the content of the course.

4. Special tapes may be prepared to give practice or remedial drill as needed.

5. Playing time should be limited to about 10 minutes.

One of the major uses of the tape recorder is for testing auditory comprehension. See pages 129-130for examples of types of questions suggested for testing auditory comprehension.

The student's voice is recorded at given intervals. A playback furnishes evidence of the degree of improvement in speaking ability. The teacher criticizes the recording since the student is not always the best judge of his own speech.

How and Where to Secure Audio-Visual Materials

The Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction (BAVI) has the important function of securing and appraising new audio-visual materials and then preparing approved lists of 16mm sound films, filmstrips, slides, transparencies, flat pictures, recordings and prerecorded tapes.

Approved lists for requisitioning audio-visual materials are issued twice a year and sent to every school. The materials accepted for these lists are in consonance with the current course of study.

For further information concerning the available lists, consult the school audio-visual coordinator, or write to the Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction (BAVI), 131 Livingston Street, Brooklyn, New York 11201.

THE BAVI FILM LOAN COLLECTION

Each year, when funds are available, a number of newly approved 16mm sound films are purchased by BAVI for the free Film Loan Collection. These films may be borrowed by school personnel. Consult the BAVI catalogue, INSTRUCTIONAL FILMS AND TAPES, for procedure in borrowing.

TAPES OF WNYE RADIO PROGRAMS

Duplication of any program or series may be requested by writing to BAVI and sending a 7 inch reel of good quality blank tape for every two titles desired. Instructions for ordering are included in the BAVI film catalogue.

CHINESE INFORMATION SERVICE

Lists of available 16mm educational films on China may be had by writing to the Chinese Information Service, 159 Lexington Avenue, New York, New York 10016. This agency provides these films on free loan to school personnel and other civic groups interested in the culture of China. It also provides, upon request, free cultural materials in class sets.

REQUISITION OF MATERIALS

Since filmstrips, slides, recordings, pictures and transparencies are not available on loan from the Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction, these aids must be purchased by the individual schools. Information about item number, vendor, cost, etc., can be found in the approved lists.

THE LANGUAGE LABORATORY

Since the development of auditory acuity and verbal expression are among the aims of foreign language teaching, the language laboratory should be used beginning with the first level. Auditory acuity involves the ability to (a) distinguish among sounds; (b) recognize whether a specific phoneme belongs to the sound system of English or Chinese; (c) distinguish among similar sounds in Chinese; (d) recognize meanings of familiar words and groups of words which are spoken fluently in Chinese; (e) infer from context the sense of unfamiliar words and groups of words. These elements of auditory acuity often referred to as passive, should be termed receptive since the processes involved in comprehension involve student activity. The mental activity is intense, even though it is not externally visible.

Auditory acuity and verbal expression are closely related. Good pronunciation depends upon the ability to distinguish among sounds. In addition, good pronunciation requires physical control over speech musculature so that the speech organs, obedient to the speaker's intension, articulate the desired sounds. The teacher-supervised training in comparing sounds for recognitional purposes will develop into the skill of comparing one's speech production with what one hears. This should ultimately lead to self-criticism which will enable the student to improve without the close teacher supervision which was essential at the beginning.

After the teacher has presented phonemes, words, and groups of words for recognitional purposes, and has begun "live" training in speech production (largely through imitation with a minimal amount of explanation) the language laboratory takes over the necessary function of providing a sufficient amount of repetitive experience in listening and speaking. This will result in overlearning, which leads to automatized responses through which language becomes a usable vehicle for reception or expression of thought.

Laboratory Equipment and Students' Activities

The variety of activities which students perform in a laboratory depends upon the type of equipment installed. In some laboratories a given number of students' stations are equipped with individual tape recorders in addition to headsets (earphone-microphone combination). Here the student may record himself; he may rewind his tape and listen to it, noting his errors, and then correcting them to the best of his ability. Only a few laboratories are completely equipped with this playback facility.

In most laboratories, students' stations are equipped only with combination headsets which permit the student to hear a tape transmitted from the teacher's console, and to speak in imitation, but not to record at his station. This is the case also with the mobile laboratories which have been introduced experimentally into several schools. However, even without individual tape recorders, students' speech may be recorded at the teacher's console, one student at a time, as the student works in his booth. This facility should be in use in every laboratory session.

The teacher should beware of permitting any laboratory lesson to consist solely of students' listening and repetition. Repetition may become an automatic process, and attention may wander. The student has no opportunity to exercise the self-critical faculty which we are seeking to develop. During each laboratory session the teacher should record the speech of at least two or three students and should have a brief lesson in which the whole class hears and criticizes the quality of speech heard during the playback.

Organization, Administration and Scheduling

Students should be scheduled for the laboratory at least once but not more than twice a week. This permits a greater number of classes to use the laboratory than would be the case if a class were scheduled to the laboratory as its regular classroom. A room with permanently fixed, high separators between booths, is suitable only for laboratory. Conventional teaching is best performed in a standard classroom.

A new development is the classroom laboratory, or electronic classroom. Here the equipment is contained in a desk which may be opened to permit use and to provide separation between the students. When the desk is closed flat, the classroom resumes its conventional appearance. When all language classrooms are so equipped, there will be no need to move classes to another room. The teacher will make his presentation and will follow it by the appropriate lesson-tape for drill. Accessibility of equipment will simplify classroom routines by making laboratory practice instantly available.

Level I

At the first level, laboratory work may be started at approximately the sixth week of the course. This time must be flexible, depending upon the type of class, the nature of the presentation, and other factors. The following kinds of tapes are suggested for Level I:

1. Recognition of sameness or difference of sounds
   Words are presented on tape in pairs, of which one may be in Chinese and one in English; both may be in Chinese with identical phonemes or with different phonemes. These tapes require two hearings. At the first hearing, the student repeats what he hears. At the second hearing, the student listens and writes for each pair the words "same" or "different," English first, then Chinese; or Chinese first, then English.

2. Selection of correct oral response

   A sentence with three endings is heard on tape. One is correct. The student writes the number of the correct ending.

3. Selection of correct answer to question

   A question is asked on tape, followed by three responses, of which one is correct. The student writes the number of the correct response.

4. Picture-description test*

   A clear, line-drawing is flashed on a screen by means of an overhead projector. Parts of the picture are numbered. The tape describes these parts and the students write the number of the parts described.

These four kinds of taped exercises require no reading or writing in Chinese but only auditory comprehension demonstrated by the writing of numbers or letters or a few English words, e.g., "same" or "different." At the first level, the vocabulary and structures used on the tapes should be closely related to what is taken up in class.

Other types of tapes to be used after the midpoint of level I are:

1. Direct spoken imitation of the taped model of words, phrases and sentences

   In building up the amount of material to be repeated, the single words and phrases are, after repetition, incorporated in sentences, with an upper limit of approximately ten syllables. Repetitions on tape are spoken at an increasingly rapid pace, leading to a fair degree of fluency, but never at the expense of clarity of sound-image. The change of pace or tempo presents a new challenge each time and holds the learner's interest despite repetitions of identical material. Taped material must be lively in content and should avoid dull or stilted expressions.

2. Repetition and manipulation of patterns taken up in class

   Manipulation or variations may include recasting the sentence by making an indicated basic change, e.g., restating in the negative, formulating questions from the statements, stating the sentence in a different tense, etc. After the student has spoken any sentence other than a direct imitation, he hears the correct form on the tape.

3. Directed speech

   This kind of tape, in which the student obeys a direction telling him what to say, provides review at controlled speed of material taken up in class. It represents a step in developing freely expressed conversation and aims to progressively liberate the student from direct, imitative speech.

Level II

In a large school the administration is frequently faced with the need of combining into a unified group students who come from various teachers with some variation in preparation, in speech patterns, and in language habits. The laboratory provides the means of giving a common linguistic experience which welds the group into a new unit. To achieve this result, some of the lesson tapes of Level I may be repeated for review. Others of the same type may be prepared, using vocabulary and grammatical structures prescribed for Level II in this curriculum bulletin.

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* Adapted from material prepared for the Language Laboratory Research Study. New York State Department of Education. 1959-1963.

Additional kinds of tapes appropriate for Level II are:

1. Tapes to accompany the basic reader

   These tapes contain fluent readings of the text, or of parts of the text. The student listens and reads silently. Frequently, the proper phrasing of words helps the pupil understand the meaning and overcomes the tendency to read word-by-word. If the text is read in a pleasant voice with good intonation, the reading becomes a pleasant esthetic experience. Portions of the text are reread on the tape, with spaces provided for the student's repetition. Suitable exercises may appear on the tape as well. The teacher may wish to have the student hear and read the entire text. While this is desirable, time limitations may prevent such treatment, in which case the teacher will select chapters for the students to read at home.

2. Dictation tapes

   It is sometimes stated that the language laboratory is useful only for developing speaking and listening skills. It is a wise policy, however, to use the laboratory for whatever good purpose it can serve, in this case for writing practice in the form of dictation. Since taped speech deprives the pupil of visual clues to articulation, the exercise should be strictly controlled as to speed and clarity of speech. To save time, a sentence is read on tape, and several words extracted from it are repeated. The student writes these words. The words selected incorporate the problem to be practiced.

3. Auditory comprehension passages with pretest questions and multiple-choice responses

   Passages selected or constructed to include the vocabulary and structure patterns prescribed for Level II form a good preparation for this type of work, which is generally used in Level III.

How and Where to Secure Laboratory Materials

Each school receives a list of approved Audio-Visual material which may be purchased by the individual school from commercial sources. Information as to item, number, vendor, cost, etc., can be found in the approved lists.

In addition, budget permitting, the Bureau of Foreign Languages in cooperation with the Bureau of Aduio-Visual Instruction and the Bureau of Curriculum Development will prepare tapes and manuals of tape scripts based on this curriculum bulletin.

TESTING

One of the indispensable functions of teaching is the periodic testing of pupil achievement. Testing procedures, in addition to measuring achievement, also exercise a profound influence on teaching practices and on pupils' attitudes and study habits. The teacher should, therefore, at all times be fully aware of the purpose of testing, whether it be an informal evaluation of classroom performance, a short quiz, or a comprehensive examination. The purposes of testing are briefly summarized here to focus attention on the values to be derived from testing programs.

Purpose of Testing

1. Evaluation (measurement of achievement at any stage)
2. Instruction (review, organization and retention)
3. Diagnosis (determination of errors and difficulties)
4. Incentive (motivation for increased effort)
5. Orientation (practice for tests and examinations)
6. Placement (grade placement or ability grouping)
7. Experiment (resolution of instructional problems)

Aside from comprehensive foreign language achievement tests, the teacher's main concern is with class or department tests. Class tests may be designed to assess the basic foreign language skills, namely, auditory comprehension, oral production, reading comprehension, and writing skills. Class tests may also be designed to measure component skills or related knowledge, namely, pronunciation, mastery of vocabulary, structural control, or cultural knowledge. Whatever the skill or knowledge to be tested, the teacher should observe certain common sense principles of test construction which apply to all tests.

Characteristics of a Good Test

A good foreign language test should:

1. reflect audio-lingual aims and procedures
2. function as far as possible within the foreign language
3. be based on a fair sampling of what has been taught
4. present items in functional context
5. list items in order of increasing difficulty

6. give proper weighting to items
7. provide clear instructions to the pupil
8. allow enough time for pupils to complete it
9. be easy to administer and to mark

The teacher should be aware of the converse of some of the characteristics of a good test. A general principle is to avoid any type of question which has a harmful effect on learning if practiced in the classroom. Among such undesirable types of questions are: (a) Translation (not recommended until Level IV); (b) Hybrid Items (do not use a garbled mixture of English and the foreign language); (c) Isolated Items (avoid words or idioms out of context, or culture questions out of situational context); (d) Incorrect Forms (avoid find-and-correct-the-error types which make the pupil concentrate on incorrect forms); (e) Two-Stage Items (do not require the pupil to perform two operations, of which the second depends on the correctness of the first); (f) Non-Functional Items (do not require the pupil to perform linguistic acrobatics; e.g., the sliding synopsis).

Testing the Four Skills

Auditory Comprehension

Testing audio-lingual achievement before students have learned to read and write requires special techniques, in some respects quite different from those used in written tests. Of the two interrelated skills involved here, auditory comprehension can be measured objectively by means of the following:

1. True-false statements

   Women syandzai nyan Fawen. 我們現在念法文

2. Multiple-choice items consisting of definitions or inferential completions

   Gou gen mau shr 狗跟貓是

   a) nyau b) yu c) dungwu d) ren
   鳥 魚 動物 人

3. Oral responses

   Teacher: Ni weishenma bu shufu? 你為什麼不舒服

   Pupil: Wo you bing. 我有病

4. Action Responses

Teacher: Ching ba shu dakai. (Pupil opens the book.) 請把書打開.

All statements, questions and choices should be heard only. True-false and multiple-choice items may be paper and pencil quizzes requiring answers merely by indication of a number or a letter. Oral responses should be modeled on dialogue and pattern drills.

Action responses are especially recommended because they dramatize auditory comprehension. Some suggested commands to stimulate action responses in testing auditory comprehension are:
站起來 請坐 請說中國話 請擦擦
Jan chi lai. Ching dzwo. Ching shwo Junggwohwa. Ching tsa tsa
黑板 請把門關上
heiban. Ching ba men gwan shang. Pantomime or make-believe action
請舉
responses extend the range of testing possibilities: Ching jyu
手 請到黑板寫字 請把收音機拿來
shou. Ching dau heiban sye dz. Ching ba shouyinji nalai. These
commands will, of course, all be given in Chinese and will use only
the structure and vocabulary taken up prior to the test.

A component skill of auditory comprehension is auditory discrimination, usually measured by a phonetic discrimination test. This is made up of lists of words or phrases having minimal contrasts.

For example: sha, sya, and shau, syau 沙，下，少，小.

The teacher pronounces the series twice while the students listen. The teacher then pronounces the series a third time, and after a pause, pronounces only one word selected from the series. The students indicate by a number or letter which of the two words the teacher pronounced.

Oral Production

The measurement of speaking skill (oral production) is a more difficult task because the very nature of this skill requires that (a) considerable time must be taken to test pupils individually, and (b) the teacher must use subjective judgment as to quality of performance. These troublesome factors of excessive time and lack of objectivity may be reduced by the following procedure. Determine only the most important oral-production features in the dialogue and drills of a unit and test only enough pupils each day to cover all of the class by the end of the unit. Keep a proficiency record on a unit chart of students' names (on horizontal lines) and indicate oral-production features at the head of vertical columns. Use grades A, B, C, D to indicate proficiency levels, where A equals native or near-native proficiency, B equals minor errors but good enough to be understood, C equals major errors but partly comprehensible, and D equals totally incomprehensible.

The chart may also be used for grading recorded speech tests. The advantages of this procedure are that the teacher can do the grading outside of class, with the assistance of another teacher, if possible, thus reducing subjective factors. However, the inordinate amount of time required for constructing the test, for recording each student's speech, and for rating the results make it inadvisable to use this procedure except as part of a terminal examination.

The evaluation of component oral skills, e.g., pronunciation, pattern variation, etc. is somewhat easier than the evaluation of speaking skills in general because these component skills are constantly being drilled in the classroom during audio-lingual instruction. Thus, the so-called echo test is nothing more than a measure of the student's ability to mimic words, phrases, and sentences spoken by the teacher or by a recorded voice. The teacher may use a rating scale to evaluate the student's power of exact mimicry.

Other question-types for testing oral production and its component skills follow the models presented in dialogues and drills. A summary of the chief question-types which can be constructed on this basis follows:

Dialogue Responses

The student speaks the phrases and sentences corresponding to his assigned role in a memorized dialogue, cued by the teacher or by a dialogue partner.

Dialogue Questions

The student answers dialogue or personalized questions asked by the teacher or by another student.

Directed Dialogue

The student is directed by the teacher to tell, ask, say, describe, or explain something to someone.

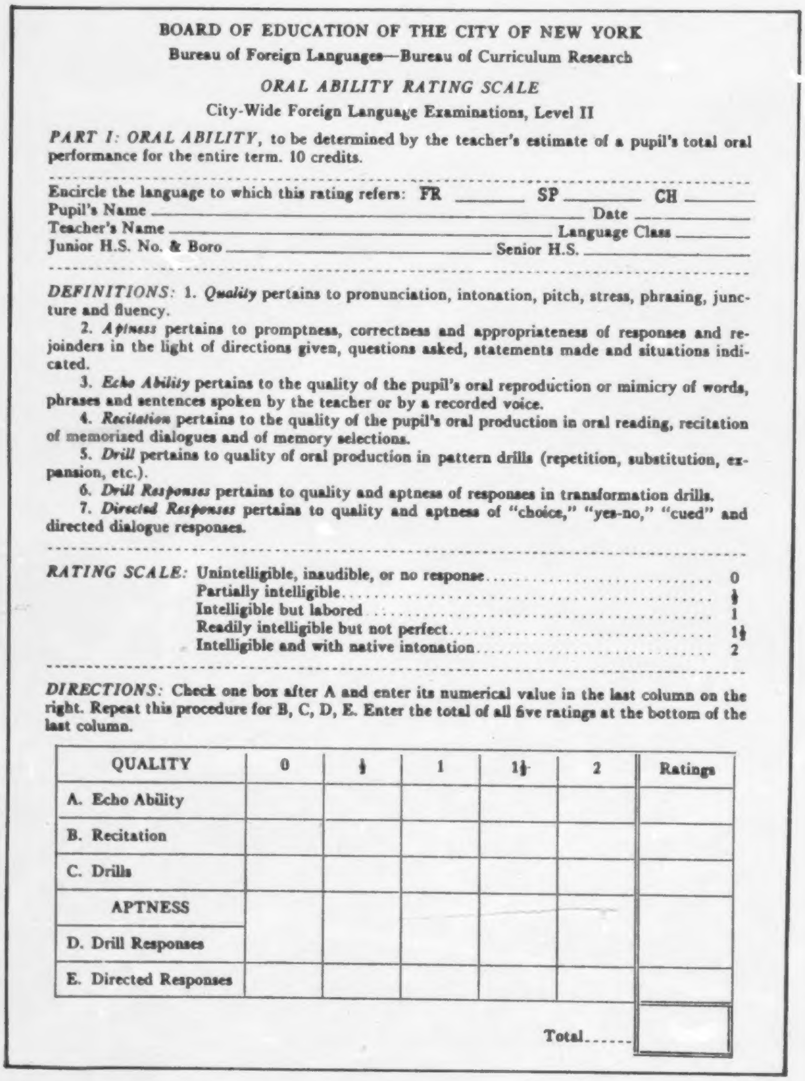
Substitution

The student substitutes words or phrases in a pattern sentence, cued by the teacher.

Transformation

The student changes forms or tenses in a pattern sentence, cued by the teacher.

A more comprehensive type of scale for rating oral ability in Chinese is the Oral Ability Rating Scale originally designed for use in Level II citywide foreign language tests. This is not a single test but rather a rating scale based upon total oral performance over the entire final term of Level II. The rating is a teacher's estimate guided by the rating scale. Descriptions given in this bulletin of what constitutes oral



BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

Bureau of Foreign Languages—Bureau of Curriculum Research

ORAL ABILITY RATING SCALE

City-Wide Foreign Language Examinations, Level II

PART I: ORAL ABILITY, to be determined by the teacher's estimate of a pupil's total oral performance for the entire term. 10 credits.

Encircle the language to which this rating refers: FR ________ SP ________ CH ________
Pupil's Name ____________________ Date ________
Teacher's Name ____________________ Language Class ________
Junior H.S. No. & Boro ____________________ Senior H.S. ________

DEFINITIONS: 1. *Quality* pertains to pronunciation, intonation, pitch, stress, phrasing, juncture and fluency.

2. *Aptness* pertains to promptness, correctness and appropriateness of responses and rejoinders in the light of directions given, questions asked, statements made and situations indicated.

3. *Echo Ability* pertains to the quality of the pupil's oral reproduction or mimicry of words, phrases and sentences spoken by the teacher or by a recorded voice.

4. *Recitation* pertains to the quality of the pupil's oral production in oral reading, recitation of memorized dialogues and of memory selections.

5. *Drill* pertains to quality of oral production in pattern drills (repetition, substitution, expansion, etc.).

6. *Drill Responses* pertains to quality and aptness of responses in transformation drills.

7. *Directed Responses* pertains to quality and aptness of "choice," "yes-no," "cued" and directed dialogue responses.

RATING SCALE:		
	Unintelligible, inaudible, or no response	0
	Partially intelligible	½
	Intelligible but labored	1
	Readily intelligible but not perfect	1½
	Intelligible and with native intonation	2

DIRECTIONS: Check one box after A and enter its numerical value in the last column on the right. Repeat this procedure for B, C, D, E. Enter the total of all five ratings at the bottom of the last column.

QUALITY	0	½	1	1½	2	Ratings
A. Echo Ability						
B. Recitation						
C. Drills						
APTNESS						
D. Drill Responses						
E. Directed Responses						
					Total......	

ORAL ABILITY RATING SCALE

ability are used as the basis for identification of the components of oral ability to be rated. Performance in the particular types of oral skills specified as aims for Levels I and II was also a major consideration in identifying rating factors.

The following oral skills are to be rated: Echo Ability, Recitation, Drills, Drill Responses, Directed Responses. All of these terms are defined in the specimen rating scale on page 132. These aspects of oral production are listed in order of increasing complexity. Thus, Echo Ability, involving reproduction or mimicry, is a purely imitative skill and hence is placed at the beginning or easiest part of the scale. At the most difficult end of the scale we have Directed Responses involving cued and directed dialogue responses, both active skills which require not only quality but also aptness (promptness, correctness and appropriateness of response). Normal or free conversation is not represented on the rating scale because the attainment of this complex skill is not an expected outcome of Levels I and II.

Reading Comprehension

Following the prereading phase and continuing through all levels, the testing of reading comprehension is a regular feature of instruction. In Level I, before writing has been introduced, reading comprehension questions can be answered orally, but formal tests will have to be entirely of the objective type, e.g., true-false items, completions, and definitions, with multiple choices, of which the correct one is indicated by a number or letter. In addition, component reading skills (vocabulary, structure, and idiom recognition) can also be tested either by oral responses or by objective-type quizzes, entirely in Chinese.

The basic type of objective reading-comprehension test consists of a reading passage followed by a series of statements with a number of completions after each statement. The student is required to choose the one completion which is correct in the light of what is stated or implied in the reading passage. In constructing such a test, the teacher must make sure that the passage selected has sufficient content upon which to base at least five statements, each having from three to five alternative completions. At least one of the five statements should refer to the general idea or situation of the passage rather than to explicit facts therein. In devising the completions, the teacher must be careful to have only one possible correct answer among the alternatives. Care must also be taken to avoid obviously nonsensical completions which can be eliminated by the pupil without basic comprehension of the passage.

Component reading skills can be tested entirely in Chinese and with all items in context. In the following suggestions, each question-type below requires the pupils to choose from a given list of three or four words or idioms the one which is correct according to context in a given sentence.

1. Choose the synonym (or antonym) of an underlined word in a given sentence.

Na ge ren shr jyau-ywan. 那個人是教員

學生 大夫 買賣的 工人

a. sywe-sheng b. dai-fu c. maimaide d. gungren

2. Choose the word which belongs in the same class as the underlined in a given sentence.

Lau-hu shr dungwu. 老虎是動物

狗 魚 鳥 螞蟻

a. gou b. yu c. nyau d. mayi

3. Choose the word which is defined in a given sentence.

Shweijyau de difang. 睡覺的地方

客廳 臥房 飯廳 洗澡房

a. keting b. wofang c. fanting d. syidzaufang

4. Choose the word which fits the situation described in a sentence.

Sanbu gen kan dungwu de difang. 散步跟看動物的地方.

圖書館 禮拜堂 公園 電影院

a. tushugwan b. libaitang c. gungywan d. dyanyingywan

5. Choose the word whose meaning fits a blank space in a sentence.

牙痛的時候應該看

Yatung de shrhou yinggai kan ____________.

校長 牙醫 看護 警察

a. syaujang b. yayi c. kanhu d. jingchà

6. Choose the word that is missing in a structure or idiom used in a given sentence.

他教 特別好

Ta jyau ________ tebye hau.

得 着 了 活

a. de b. jau c. le d. hwo

7. Choose the idiom whose meaning fits a blank space in a sentence.

他想来想去都

Ta syang lai syang chyu dou ____________.

8. Choose the idiom which would be appropriate to the situation described in a sentence.

我們不論做事或念書都要
Women bulun dzwoshr hwo nyanshu, dou yau ______________.

一舉兩得
a. yi yr lyang de

有始有終
b. you shr you jung

貴貴重重
c. gweigwei chungchung

三三兩兩
d. sansan lyanglyang

Writing

Most of the previously discussed question-types for testing auditory comprehension, oral production and reading comprehension can be readily adapted to require written answers. For example, the true-false type can be broadened to include the writing of true statements for those which the pupil has marked false. The directions for oral responses can be changed to require written responses in the case of auditory and reading comprehension questions. Completion types can require either short written answers or rewriting of the entire sentence plus the completion. Other tests of writing ability are "spot" or full dictations, controlled writing, and directed composition. The latter will be discussed below under New York State Regents Examinations.

Tests of component writing skills can also be adapted to require written answers, using the types just noted. After hearing the minimal-contrast series in the phonetic discrimination test, the student can write the word or phrase which the teacher pronounced last. The items of the echo test can first be repeated orally and then written. The same can be done with substitutions, transformations, dialogue and directed dialogue responses.

New York State Regents Examination

Although as of this writing, there is no New York State Regents Examination in Chinese, Regents credit is granted to students who successfully pass the New York Citywide Level III Examination in Chinese. This examination is similar to the other New York State Regents language examinations in format and academic requirements.

Providing student orientation to questions in comprehensive examinations is a recognized purpose of class testing programs. Although the following types of questions appear in the Chinese Level III examinations, they are designed to test the results of audio-lingual instruction and hence are also suitable for adaptation to other levels.

Auditory Comprehension

This type of question consists of ten or fifteen Chinese passages dealing with audio-lingual experiences. Each passage is preceded by a question in Chinese. The examiner reads the question and the passage at conversational tempo. The students read the question and four alternative answers on their answer papers and are given one minute to choose the correct answer and to write its number in the space provided. The level and range of vocabulary, structures, and idioms is determined by the content and scope of Levels I-III. The content of the passages is similar to the topics taken up in the dialogues, intensive reading, and culture study for Levels I-III. Sources for the passages may be Chinese newspapers, periodicals, student publications, printed texts of broadcasts, and textbooks or review books containing audio-comprehension exercises. The passages should deal with a central theme or situation, and its length should not exceed fifty words. Avoid the following: anecdotes in which comprehension depends on a single key word or punch line, complex structures not characteristic of spoken Chinese, and exotic words or names that are not recognizable audially. Classify the passages as easy, medium, difficult, and arrange them in order of increasing difficulty.

Directed Composition

This type of question consists of a number of directions, given in English or in Chinese, in which students are directed to tell, ask, say, describe, or explain something in Chinese to another person. The directions are designed to elicit a series of Chinese sentences related in context. Example: Write a composition describing your school. Your composition should include information on the following topics:

a. The approximate number of students and teachers.

b. The type of classmates.

c. Some of the subjects taught in the school.

d. Some of the facilities of the school.

e. The usual school program.

f. Some of the extracurricular activities of the school.

In constructing a question of this type, the teacher must make sure that the topic is within the real or potential experience range of students in a particular level and that the vocabulary, structures, and idioms needed for answering have been taught for active use. If the directions and outline are given in English, the pupils should be told that the purpose of this question is not to translate the exact words given in the outline but to use appropriate expressions in Chinese that will best convey the ideas.

Other types of New York State Regents questions are:

a. Oral-Stimulus Dialogues

The examiner reads a statement describing the setting of the dialogue. He then reads the part of the first speaker. The student, bearing in mind the setting, writes an appropriate response on behalf of the second speaker.

b. Written-Stimulus Dialogues

Each dialogue group begins with a brief statement describing the background setting. After carefully reading the background setting and the lines of dialogue, the student writes on behalf of the second speaker an appropriate response to each dialogue line of the first speaker.

c. Reading Comprehension

The student reads a passage in Chinese and then answers a series of multiple-choice questions based on the passage.

In general, the trend of developments in the Regents examinations is to require more active knowledge, i.e., a greater percentage of complete written responses or written completions, and fewer multiple choices.

EVALUATION

The following outline of the characteristics of an effective foreign language program is intended to help teachers, department chairmen, coordinators, and principals concerned with foreign language instruction. The general and specific aims of foreign language instruction are given in detail at the beginning of this bulletin and at the beginning of each level. Matching these aims with the practices listed here and the results of instruction should enable teachers and supervisors to assess the effectiveness of the overall foreign language program.

The practices outlined below cannot, of course, all be observed in a single class period. They should, however, play an important role in the total foreign language program over a period of time.

Teaching Conditions

The Classroom

1. The classroom is a "cultural island" with appropriate exhibits, posters, pictures, photographs, proverbs, travel folders, and maps illustrating various aspects of the foreign language and its culture.
2. Many chalkboards are available on the walls of the classroom (including the rear wall).
3. All exercises written on the chalkboards have Chinese headings.
4. A class bulletin board displays news items and pictures of current interest from Chinese newspapers and magazines. Displays are not more than a week old.
5. The Chinese classroom is equipped with a tape recorder, a phonograph, and a combination slide and filmstrip projector.
6. The room is equipped with dark shades and a motion picture screen.
7. Chinese dictionaries, periodicals, newspapers, and reference books are available to students.

The Language Laboratory

1. The laboratory is large enough to provide a position for each member of the class.
2. Some student positions provide for recording by students and for playback of what has been said.
3. There is adequate provision for the storage of tapes and other equipment in the room.

4. A program of preventive maintenance of electro-mechanical aids, provided at regular intervals, is available.

5. The laboratory is used only for language classes and is located in a quiet section of the building.

6. The positions at which the students sit are provided with places for books and papers so that students may write.

7. The laboratory is available for each student at least once a week, and more often when possible. The laboratory period is never more than half the time of a regular class period.

8. The laboratory is constantly supervised by a responsible person.

9. At early levels the tapes used in the laboratory contain materials that have first been presented in class.

10. At higher levels the laboratory provides opportunities for listening to authentic recordings of cultural and literary value.

11. When possible, time allowance is given to teachers for the preparation of tape scripts and tapes.

12. The language laboratory plays a role in the testing program.

The Teacher's Program

1. The teacher is given no more than two preparations daily, when possible.

2. The teacher teaches no more than three classes consecutively.

3. Preferably, the teacher meets all his classes in the same room.

4. Only specially qualified teachers are given difficult assignments.

Opportunities for Teacher and Student Growth

1. Experimental programs and demonstrations of new teaching techniques are encouraged.

2. Arrangements are made for interschool visits and teacher exchanges.

3. Foreign travel for foreign language teachers is encouraged.

4. Provision is made for teachers to attend professional meetings.

5. Attendance of teachers at NDEA Institutes is encouraged.

6. Teachers are given time to prepare suitable classroom and laboratory materials for their students.

7. Teachers are encouraged to participate in study groups and workshops.

8. Outstanding achievement in Chinese by students is recognized with awards comparable to honors in other subject areas.

9. Students are encouraged to correspond with students living in Chinese communities.

Organization

Recruitment

1. All teachers of Chinese classes hold a license in the subject.

2. Chinese instruction is available to all students who can profit from such instruction.

3. Students who find that they are unable to continue to study Chinese with profit are permitted to withdraw.

4. Guidance counselors are well informed on the subject of the foreign language program.

5. Students begin only one foreign language at a time.

6. Students of foreign background are encouraged to study their mother tongue.

Curriculum

1. Courses are established which aim at a six year sequence on the secondary school level and a three year sequence on the elementary level.

2. In planning students' programs, an attempt is made to avoid a long gap between the end of foreign language study in high school and the beginning of foreign language study in college.

3. The school's course of study does not slavishly follow a commercially prepared text when such text deviates from the requirements of the New York City foreign language program.

4. Courses emphasize the use of Chinese for communication in this order: listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing.

5. Courses utilize the Chinese language resources of the community.

6. A sequential and continuous program is provided.

7. There is satisfactory articulation both downward and upward.

8. There is a long sequence in one foreign language rather than short sequences in two.

9. There is adequate provision for the use of audio-visual aids.

10. Special classes are programmed to meet the needs of advanced and academically talented students.

11. Teachers are provided with definite departmental courses of study and units of work.

The Teacher

1. Has a fluent command of the Chinese language, especially of its sound system.

2. Avoids excessive talking.

3. Uses Chinese almost exclusively.

4. Plans every lesson carefully and keeps written lesson plans.

5. Presents a good example to the class, in neatness of attire, dignity, posture, and bearing.

6. Has a stimulating personality.

7. Is respected by the students and is in complete control of the classroom situation.

8. Is friendly, cheerful, courteous, and helpful.

9. Carefully explains what is required of students and insists that they meet the standard set.

10. Can adapt the textbook used to the requirements of this bulletin.

11. Is patient, generous, and fair; possesses a good sense of humor without descending to undue familiarity or cheap humor.

12. Speaks English clearly and correctly.

13. Has a pleasant voice of sufficient volume to be heard anywhere in the room.

14. Welcomes visitors to the classroom and is receptive to constructive supervision and criticism.

The Students

1. Are interested and attentive.

2. Participate in the lesson actively.

3. Communicate actively with each other in Chinese under the direction of the teacher.

4. Are courteous and helpful toward the teacher and fellow students.

5. Recite in a clear and audible voice.

6. Speak both Chinese and English correctly.

7. Are neat in all their written work.

8. Correct each other's work constructively and spontaneously.

The Quality of Instruction

1. Lessons are well planned and timed so that they are taught within the class period.

2. Students are provided with opportunities for using Chinese in meaningful situations. There is a maximum use of Chinese. English is used only when absolutely necessary.

3. New structures are presented and drilled by means of pattern practice.

4. Both analogy and analysis are used as devices in teaching grammatical structures. There is a maximum of drill to automatize responses and a minimum of theoretical explanation.

5. Students are expected to master the sound system of Chinese in functional expressions before learning to read and write the language.

6. Instruction aims at developing direct auditory and reading comprehension, without translation into English.

7. The classroom use of disc and tape recordings is a regular part of the course.

8. Various visual aids are used to teach and drill vocabulary and to promote conversation in Chinese.

9. The cultural aspect of the study of Chinese is integrated with the linguistic aspect.

10. Chinese is used in situations appropriate to the age and experience of the students.

11. In testing, performance in Chinese is stressed.

12. Errors in pronunciation and intonation are promptly corrected.

13. First choral, and then individual, responses are elicited.

14. Reading is taught, at the beginning, as a natural outgrowth of audio-lingual experiences.

15. A variety of drills and activities is used in a single period.

16. Drill exercises are well graded and progressive in difficulty.

17. Homework assignments are clear and meaningful, and provide for individual differences.

18. Writing skills are taught through copying, dictation, completion exercises, written answers and rejoinders, and compositions.

19. Instruction is maintained at a lively pace.

20. In the elementary phases of the program, instruction is based on the use of dialogues and mimicry-memorization techniques.

21. Adequate provision is made for the review of learned material at appropriate intervals.

22. Language skills are regularly and appropriately evaluated.

23. Comprehension is always checked in student responses.

24. Adequate provision is regularly made for remedial instruction.

25. Class work and laboratory drill are well integrated.

26. Every lesson is properly motivated.

27. The distribution of books and materials, the collection of homework, and other housekeeping chores are well routinized.

28. While some students write on the chalkboard, the others work at their seats.

29. Questions are clearly formulated; they are put to the entire class and time is allowed for thinking; individuals are then called upon by name.

30. Questions are well distributed so that all students have an opportunity to recite.

31. Before the close of the class period, the main points of the lesson are summarized briefly.

32. The teacher does not depend solely on the textbook, but often makes use of lively, well prepared exercises of his own invention.

THE ADVANCED PLACEMENT PROGRAM

As of September 1969, no provision has been made for an Advanced Placement examination in Chinese. There is, therefore, no Advanced Placement Program for Chinese in the New York City schools. Nevertheless, the following section, which explains the program as it operates in French, Spanish, German, and Latin may be of interest to all foreign language teachers.

In keeping with the national interest in strengthening all areas of American education, the Advanced Placement Program is offered in foreign languages to stimulate selected students and teachers to higher achievement.

Advanced Placement programs are offered in schools in which a sufficient number of gifted and ambitious students warrant such special provision. These students are given an opportunity to do college-level work and to take the Advanced Placement examinations. Passing these examinations usually enables the students to receive college credit or to be placed in advanced courses in college, or both.

Selection of students for the college-level course is based on a number of criteria: the student's proficiency in the foreign language, his native ability, his general scholastic achievement, recommendations of his teacher and guidance counselor regarding the student's maturity, his emotional balance, his health, and his parents' consent. An important factor is the student's eagerness to take the course, not for credit, but for work on a high level. The teacher should be selected for his interest in the program, his readiness to work on a college level, and his professional background. Moreover, he should be fluent in the foreign language, have a broad knowledge of its culture and literature, and possess the ability to present and interpret its literature on a college level.

Differences between Levels IV and V of the course of study and the Advanced Placement Program occur in content, in certain aspects of method, and in the student's expected achievement. The content in the Advanced Placement Program has more difficult and mature materials studied in greater depth. The method is predicated upon more frequent and more extensive lecturing, class discussions to elicit penetrating analysis and to stimulate interpretation, and a greater amount of independent work by the students.

The two basic objectives of the course are an increased competence in the use of the foreign language and a knowledge of the literature and the culture of the foreign country. The Advanced Placement Program syllabus states that, upon completion of the advanced course, the student should have attained the ability "to understand what an educated native speaker says when he is speaking at normal speed on a subject not unduly specialized"; and the ability "to speak with an acceptable pronunciation and with a command of vocabulary and syntax sufficient for a sustained conversation on a general subject." With regard to the content in literature and culture, the Advanced Placement Program syllabus states: "Knowledge of the literature and culture involves an acquaintance with representative works significant for their content and literary values, and the ability to read with understanding and appreciation. The student should be able to comprehend the situations, emotions, ideas, and implications of works which might be read in a college course in literature and to relate such works to their historical and cultural setting." Moreover, he should be able to write freely and accurately on subjects that fall within the range of his experience.

For further information regarding administration of the course, selection of pupils, qualifications of teachers, description of course content, examinations, and credits, teachers may use Advanced Placement Program Course Descriptions (College Entrance Examination Board, Educational Testing Service, Box 592, Princeton, N.J. $1.50).

TEAM TEACHING

Team teaching is a type of staff collaboration in which two or more teachers are teamed for some aspects of the instructional program. It provides a means of pooling the talents of teachers in planning and carrying out learning experiences. In their respective classes, the teachers are jointly responsible for the instruction of all students in whatever curriculum content is selected for team teaching. Each teacher is also responsible for his own class. This method gives the students a periodic change of pace and exposes them to different teacher personalities.

Team teaching is characterized by large - and small-group instruction. For example, one teacher may take two classes for a lecture, demonstration, film, or trip, while the other tutors a small group. Large-and small-group instruction also provides time for the relieved teacher or teachers to plan lessons, prepare teaching materials, arrange special programs, etc.

Experience has demonstrated that certain preconditions must be met before team teaching can be fully successful:

1. The programming of two or more classes which will be parallel in time, language, and grade.
2. The assignment to these classes of teachers who have varied abilities and who possess qualities of personality and temperament that make for effective teamwork.
3. The provision of rooms or halls large enough to seat two or more normal-sized classes as a group.
4. The drawing up of lesson plans, teacher-class charts, and time schedules for an entire unit of team teaching.
5. The design and construction of suitable tests and other instruments for evaluating the team teaching program.

Assuming that these conditions exist, how can we profitably engage in team teaching in foreign languages? A team of two or more teachers (with varying leadership according to the topic of the lesson and teacher talent) can prepare thoroughly for lectures which may include the use of the opaque projector and pictures, the overhead projector and transparencies, taped material and tape recorders, phonographs and discs, or the sound projector and films.

The emphasis on the development of audio-lingual skills demands so much time that the teaching of the foreign culture frequently tends to be neglected or to be carried on in English. Team teaching, on the other hand, permits the careful preparation of lecture scripts with vocabulary so that the lectures can be delivered in the foreign language. The benefits of these lectures extend to all the students, for they gain in language as well as in information and appreciation.

Team teaching also enables the members of the team to prepare well-graded pattern drills, scripts and tapes for language laboratory use, duplicated exercises, review materials, and tests, as well as visual material for display or projection on a screen.

Through large-group teaching, the teacher who is most expert in the demonstration and explanation of structures can take over two or more classes so that eventually all students in a given grade of a language can profit from superior teaching. The other teachers will also profit through the preparation and observation of such lessons.

Some aspects of language learning, such as the development of good pronunciation, conversational skills, and reading and writing ability, do not lend themselves as well to team teaching. However, they may be taught in small groups by teachers relieved as the result of large-group formations. This is generally true of those aspects of language learning in which intensive individual performance and correction are necessary. However, team teaching can be used profitably in a program of foreign language instruction if there is resourceful programming of teachers and students, and if the aforementioned preconditions are met.

PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION

Programmed instruction is based on a carefully integrated psychological rationale. Three essential features must be present in a course to make it authentic programmed instruction.

1. The program must be based upon an adequately detailed specification of the "terminal behavior" (that is, new skills, knowledge or response tendencies) which the programmer desires to produce.

2. The material of instruction must be organized and presented in a carefully designed sequence of steps so that each step is made easier by virtue of the material learned in previous steps.

3. The student must have an opportunity to test his mastery of each critical step as he proceeds through the program; that is, the program must be so constructed that correct responses are promptly confirmed and the student understands and corrects wrong responses.

In the conventional classroom the teacher cannot effectively employ the three essentials of programmed instruction. As a result, special devices have been introduced to present the programmed material to the learner: teaching machines, self-tutoring courses, programmed textbooks, etc. These devices in themselves are of minor importance. The effectiveness of programmed instruction will depend almost entirely on the teaching materials.

In its construction and application, a programmed course in a foreign language has the following features:

1. The material is graded into small, easy steps that can be taken by the student one at a time with a minimum of error.

2. The program requires the student to be active by responding to every new item.

3. The program is to be used by each student individually.

4. Programmed learning provides for immediate reinforcement by supplying the correct answer after each response.

5. In programmed learning there is the merging of teaching and testing into one single process.

In addition, since audio-lingual competency is now a recognized prime goal in language learning, it would appear that no programmed course in foreign languages can claim to be effective unless it makes provision for auditory practice (through tapes) and for oral student responses, (through an audio-active microphone).

Programmed courses in foreign language have been tried experimentally in several classes in New York City high schools. It has been found that this type of instruction may have the following limitations.

1. Programmed instruction designed to be used by individual students at their own pace assumes continuously renewed student motivation which will sustain student attention, interest and activity throughout the course. The majority of high school students, however, seem to need constant teacher-induced motivation, encouragement, and prodding.

2. The material in the programmed courses is organized along logical rather than psychological lines. Words are introduced for phonetic reasons and structures for linguistic reasons rather than on the basis of situations. This approach fails to capitalize on student interest in student-centered activities.

3. Since the pace of the course and the rate of introduction of new material may be too slow for many students, the material may seem pointless and a waste of time.

4. Optimum use of a taped programmed course requires that each student operate a tape recorder equipped with a pedal for instant start and stop. At time of publication no New York City public school language laboratory is so equipped. It would be very expensive to provide each laboratory with such equipment. Furthermore, one laboratory cannot meet the needs of all the foreign language students in a school.

Fernand Marty developed a Programmed Course in Basic French which dispenses with an instructor entirely. After one year's trial, he listed the following drawbacks:

1. Students missed the teacher-student relationship.

2. Reinforcement by a machine is not sufficient to provide motivation.

3. The machine program failed to produce pronunciation as adequte as could be attained by a teacher supplemented by tape-recorded drills.

4. Too much time was consumed in detecting errors, and there was also a failure to detect errors with sufficient accuracy.

5. A self-instructional program cannot provide for self-expression.

6. Students felt the need of a book or other material to supplement the self-instruction in the language laboratory.

7. Students were dissatisfied with communicating only with a machine.

In light of all these findings, it would appear that programmed foreign language courses are not now suitable for use in our New York City classrooms. It is quite conceivable, however, that properly constructed programmed courses can be used to fill the need for individual remedial work, or independent study by highly motivated students. Such courses would be most useful if they were divided into separate units, each unit treating a particular phase of segment of pronunciation, structure, vocabulary, etc. If such units could be closely related to the material used in the regular course, the promise of programmed instruction might then be realized, namely, "to free the teacher from the purely mechanical drill work," and make it possible for him "to teach students to use with art the skills which they have mastered through science."

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AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

Teachers are referred to a Guide to Films, Filmstrips, Maps and Globes, Records on Asia, available from the Asia Society, 112 East 64 Street, New York, New York 10021.

Films

The Chinese Information Service, 159 Lexington Avenue, New York, New York 10016, provides lists of educational films which may be borrowed without charge. The following list represents a sampling of the films available.

A City of Cathay	(C)	25 min.
Chinese New Year	(C)	15 min.
Dance in China	(C)	28 min.
Music in China	(C)	28 min.
Ceramics in China	(C)	24 min.
Chinese Costumes	(C)	28 min.

Athena Films, 165 West 46 Street, New York, New York 10019.

Chinese Bronze of Ancient Times	(C)	17 min.
Chinese Ceramics Through the Ages	(C)	17 min.
Chinese Jade Carving	(C)	10 min.
Chinese Painting Through the Ages	(C)	20 min.
Chinese Sculpture Through the Ages	(C)	20 min.
Chinese Shadow Play	(C)	11 min.
Story of Chinese Art	(C)	20 min.

Film Images, 220 West 42 Street, New York, New York 10036.

A Night at the Peking Opera	(C)	20 min.

McGraw-Hill Book Co., Text-Film Division, 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York, New York 10020.

China's Chair	(C)	28 min.
China: The Red Sons	(C)	52 min.
The East Is Red	(C)	130 min.

Filmstrips

Life Education Program, P.O. Box 834, New York, N.Y. 10019

The World's Great Religions	(C)	64-86 frames

McGraw-Hill Book Co., Text-Film Division, 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York, New York 10020

China and Her Neighbors	(C)	42-48 frames

Society for Visual Education, 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago, Ill. 60614

Understanding Buddhism (C) 68 frames accompanied by records

Living in China Today (C) 4 filmstrips and 4 accompanying records; 73 frames

Maps

Yale University, Far Eastern Publications, 28 Hillhouse Ave., New Haven, Conn. 06520

Language Map of China, by Henry C. Fenn 8-1/2" x 11"

The Provinces of China 8-1/2" x 11"

Twenty Chief Cities of China 8-1/2" x 11"

Denoyer-Geppert Audio-Visuals, 5235 Ravenswood, Chicago, Ill. 60640

Physical Map of Asia 47" x 37"

Map Transparencies

A. J. Nystrom Co., 3333 Elston Ave., Chicago, Ill. 60618

World Map Co., Inc., P.O. Box 336, Tarrytown, N.Y.

Tecnifax Products of Scott Education Division, 195 Appleton St., Holyoke, Mass. 01040

Records

Folkways Records, 701 Seventh Ave., New York, N.Y. 10036

Chinese Folk Songs and Dances FP 6802

Chinese Songs and Opera FW 8880

The Ruse of the Empty City (Peking Opera) FW 8882

Ellie Mao: An Anthology of Chinese Folk Songs FW 8877

Beating the Emperor's Robe FW 8883

Lyrichord Records, 141 Perry St., New York, N.Y.

Chinese Classical Music	LL 72
Chinese Classical Masterpieces	LL 82
Exotic Music of Ancient China	LL 122
China's Instrumental Heritage	LL 92
Shantung, Music of Confucius' Homeland	LL 112

Tapes

Magnetic tape recordings to accompany the major basic textbooks used in the secondary schools may be ordered from the following sources:

Far Eastern Publications, Yale University, 28 Hillhouse Ave., New Haven, Conn. 06520

Language Laboratory, Seton Hall University, South Orange, N. J.

Professor Teng Ssu-yu, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois

Altoan Press, Palo Alto, Calif.